Fears in a selected group of middle childhood South African children: A Cross-Cultural Study

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STATEMENT

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work, and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

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SUMMARY

The primary aim of this study was to determine the content, number, level and pattern of fears expressed by a culturally diverse selected group of middle childhood children in the Stellenbosch area.

The secondary aim of this study was to establish whether there were any differences in the fears expressed with respect to culture, gender and socio-econmic status (SES) as well as to ascertain any differences with respect to the two fear measuring instruments. The two fear measuring instruments administered were the Free-Option Method (FOM) and the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R). The FOM was used to determine the content and number of fears and the structured FSSC-R, to establish the content, number, level and pattern of fears.

A predominantly quantitative method of data collection was used. In all, three questionnaires were completed by 404 middle childhood children between the ages of 8 and 12 years, attending four primary schools in the Stellenbosch area. These questionnaires comprised of the Biographical questionnaire, the FOM and the FSSC-R and were administered in the same order as mentioned. The data was also analysed in a quantitative manner.

Culture was defined in the terms of the main representative cultural communities in the Stellenbosch area, namely, black, white and coloured South African children.

The content of fears based on the results of the FOM yielded only a few similarities upon comparisons to the findings of previous studies. This, however, may be due to variations in the methodology of the FOM among studies. Similarities were found regarding the content of fears based on the FSSC-R results implying that certain fears are universal. The fear of crime or crime related aspects featured among the ten most common fears for all the children regardless of the measuring instrument used. The number and level of fears for the three cultural groups were the highest for the black South African children, followed by the coloured South African children while the white South African children displayed the lowest number and level of fears. The number and level of fears for all three cultures were generally higher than found elsewhere in the world according to previous studies. The pattern of fear was similar for all three cultures.

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Gender differences for all three cultures were consistent with previous research with girls expressing more fears than boys. Girls also displayed a higher level of fears on all the five factors than the boys.

The number and level of fears was the highest for children coming from lower SES background than those coming from higher SES background. Difficulties were experienced with regard to sample size and SES and a caution to use the results regarding SES as only tentative guidelines is given.

The similarities between the results on the two measuring instruments, the FOM and the FSSC-R, were sparse emphasising a need for the development of emic assessment tools.

In the conclusion, recommendations for future studies are provided.

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OPSOMMING

Die primêre doel van die onderhawige studie was om die inhoud, aantal, vlak en patroon van uitgesproke vrese deur ´n kultureel diverse geselekteerde groep van kinders in die middelkinderjare in die Stellenboscharea, te bepaal.

Die sekondêre doel van die onderhawige studie was om vas te stel of daar verskille was in die uitgesproke vrese wat uitgedruk is met betrekking tot kultuur, geslag en sosio-ekonomiese status (SES), sowel as die vergelyking tussen die twee meetinstrumente vir vrese. Die twee meetinstrumente wat toegepas is, is die "Free Option Method " (FOM) en die "Fear Survey for Children Revised" (FSSC-R). Die FOM was gebruik om die inhoud en aantal vrese te bepaal, terwyl die FSSC-R gebruik was om die inhoud, aantal, vlak en patroon van vrese te bepaal.

´n Oorwegende kwantitatiewe metode van data insameling is gebruik in hierdie studie. In totaal is drie vraelyste beantwoord deur 404 kinders in die middelkinderjare tussen die ouderdomme van 8 en 12 jaar, wat tans vier primêre skole in die Stellenbosch area bywoon. Die drie vraelyste bestaan uit die Biografiese vraelys, die FOM en die FSSC-R en is toegepas in die voorafgaande volgorde. Die data is ook kwantitatief geanaliseer.

Kultuur is omskryf in terme van die hoof verteenwoordigende kultuurgemeenskappe in die Stellenbosch area, naamlik: swart, wit en kleurling Suid-Afrikaanse kinders.

Die inhoud van die vrese wat op die resultate van die FOM gebaseer is, het weinig ooreengestem met ander navorsingsbevindings. Die verskynsel kan heelwaarskynlik toegeskryf word aan die wisselende metodiek van die FOM in navorsing. ´n Groot mate van ooreenstemming met betrekking tot die inhoud van vrese wat gebaseer is op die FSSC-R resultate, is bevind met betrekking tot verwante navorsing. Die implikasie hiervan is dat sekere vrese wel universeel is. Vrese vir geweld of gewelddadige aspekte het gefigureer onder die tien mees algemene vrese vir al die kinders, ongeag die meetintrument wat toegepas is. Die aantal en vlak van vrese vir die verskillende kultuurgroepe was die hoogste vir die swart Suid-Afrikaanse kinders, gevolg deur dié van die kleurling Suid- Afrikaanse kinders, terwyl die wit Suid-Afrikaanse kinders met die laagste aantal en vlak van vrese gepresenteer het. Die aantal en vlak van uitgesproke vrese vir al drie

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kultuurgroepe was oor die algemeen hoër as dié van navorsingbevindinge elders in die wêreld. Die patroon van vrese was egter dieselfde vir die drie kultuurgroepe.

Geslagverskille ten opsigte van al drie kultuurgroepe is in ooreenstemming met ander navorsingsresultate bevind. Meisies het, vergeleke met seuns, meer vrese, sowel as ´n hoër vlak van vrese op al vyf faktore van die FSSC-R getoon. Kinders vanuit ´n laer SES agtergrond het ´n groter aantal, sowel as hoër vlak van vrese ervaar as kinders vanuit ´n hoër SES agtergrond. As gevolg van die probleme wat ondervind is met die steekproefgrootte en die bepaling van SES, word gemaan om die resultate met betrekking tot SES net as tentatiewe riglyne te interpreteer.

Daar was baie min ooreenstemming tussen die resultate van die twee meetinstrumente, die FOM en die FSSC-R, wat die behoefte aan die ontwikkeling van gepaste meetintrumente beklemtoon.

Ten slotte word enkele riglyne vir verdere navorsing aanbeveel.

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1. INTRODUCTION

It is paramount to gain a better understanding of the role culture plays in the fears which are expressed by children during middle childhood where cognitive, social, emotional and self-concept development are important milestones in a culturally diverse South Africa (Louw, Van Ede, & Louw, 1998; Newman, & Newman, 1997). Ultimately this will contribute to a better psychological understanding of the world as seen through the eyes of a child. This "world" is affected by the culture in which a child lives (Slee & Cross, 1989). To develop children's potential, their point of view needs to be incorporated into child caring systems, professional practice, and social policies (Dibrell & Yamamoto, 1986). Areas such as perception, cognition, motivation, interpersonal behaviour and group dynamics are influenced by culture (Triandis & Brislin, 1984). The need to expand the body of knowledge regarding fears experienced by children and that cross-cultural research is essential in order to clarify the role of cultural variables in the expression of childhood fears, is well documented. More specifically, universal features of fears across cultures and culture specific features of fears need further research for clarification (Dong, Yang, & Ollendick, 1994; Ingman, Ollendick, & Akande, 1999; King, Ollier, Iacuone, Schuster, Bays, Gullone & Ollendick, 1989; Ollendick, Yule & Ollier, 1991; Tikalsky & Wallace, 1988).

There is considerable evidence at this stage to suggest that the onset of many adult psychological problems can be traced back to childhood, especially certain anxiety disorders (Mattison, 1992; Öst, 1987; Shore & Rapport, 1998). The need for effective preventative programmes is thus indisputable. For preventative intervention to be effective, it is important to have a thorough understanding of the etiology and an awareness of the variables that determine their persistence (Spence, 1994). It is imperative to realise the role pre-knowledge as well as understanding of the content and level of fear can play in effective interventions, especially crisis intervention (Klingman & Wiesner, 1983). In the present study the variables involved were further explored to gain a better understanding of the context differences and children's fears. Early prevention could produce cost savings to mental health services and would have the benefits of improved quality of life and reduced suffering for many children (Maurer, 1965; Spence, 1994).

The normative data regarding fears of children and adolescents from different nationalities, cultures and circumstances may aid in the understanding of emotional development, as well as assisting in the identification of children or adolescents, whose fears are persistent, may lead to distress and could need psychological help (King, Hamilton & Ollendick, 1988).

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Former President Nelson Mandela said in his acceptance speech for the Nobel Peace prize on the 10 December 1993 that children are the most vulnerable citizens in any society and that they are one of society's greatest treasures (Mandela, 1993). This statement echoes the growing awareness that the foundations of adult health and psychological well-being are laid during childhood and adolescence. Emphasis was also placed on the fact that the children are the future of the country, presenting an investment worthy of time, money and patience.

Further support is given to such views by the fact that the principle of first call for children has been adopted since April 1991 in South-Africa (Dawes, Robertson, Duncan, Ensink, Jackson, Reynolds, Pillay & Richter, 1997). In September 1990 the world summit for children was held where a declaration of intent as well as a plan of action to foster the survival, protection and development of children was adopted. The Rights of the child as formulated at the 1989 United Nations Convention were also endorsed. As a commitment to pursuing these goals, world leaders agreed to be guided by the principle of a "first call for children", meaning that in the allocation of resources, highest priority would be given to satisfying the essential needs of children at all times and all levels (Unicef, 1993). This first call for children was re-emphasised in former President Nelson Mandela's opening speech at the first session of South Africa's first democratically elected Parliament (Rock, 1997).

Support for the Convention on the Rights of the child was emphasised by the African National Congress's Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994); with specific emphasis on the protection of children's lives, the promotion of full development of children's potential and creating awareness among children of their rights, needs and opportunities. Furthermore, children's needs should be paramount throughout all programmes.

In addition, the Draft White Paper for Social Welfare stated that the government is committed to giving the highest priority to the needs of all South Africa's children as well as acknowledging social, religious and cultural diversity. Prevention was said to play a crucial role in children's welfare (Government Gazette, 1996). The social relevance of the study in a South African context is in accordance with the above mentioned.

Studies which have explored the fears expressed by children during middle childhood, referring to the age group from 8 to12 years are amongst others: Angelino, Dollins and Mech (1956); Bauer,

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(1976); Carroll and Ryan-Wenger, (1999); Croake (1969); Derenvensky (1979); Dong, Xia, Lin, Young and Ollendick, (1995); Elbedour, Shulman and Kedem, (1997); Gullone and King, (1997, 1993); Ingman et al., (1999); King et al., (1989); Lane and Gullone (1999); Lapouse and Monk, (1959); Muris, Merckelbach and Collaris (1997a); Muris, Merckelbach, Meesters and Van Lier (1997b); Muris, Merckelbach, Mayer and Meesters (1998a); Nalven (1970); Neal, Lilly, and Zakis (1993); Ollendick (1983); Ollendick, Matson, and Helsel (1985); Ollendick, King and Frary, (19890; Ollendick et al. (1991); Ollendick, Yang, King, Dong and Akande (1996); Scherer and Nakumura (1968); Shore and Rapport, (1998); Slee and Cross (1989); Spence and McCathie, (1993) and Tikalsky and Wallace (1988).

Studies which addressed cultural issues in particular are amongst others: Ingman et al. (1999); Elbedour et al. (1997); Ollendick et al. (1996); Shore and Rapport (1998) and Tikalsky and Wallace (1988).

In the light of the above it becomes apparent that over the past few decades there has been an enormous spurt of normative, non-pathological fear research with fear being amongst the most extensively researched emotion. It can thus be safely said that normative research has matured to a great degree with respect to assessment methods. The body of knowledge with respect to children's fears has also broadened subsequently (Gullone, 1996).

As suggested by Richter (1994), any research impacting on health, welfare and education policy in South Africa will be making most important contributions. The aim of such research should be singular in its purpose: to aid in the creation of conditions in childhood which are essential to human development.

1.2. BROAD AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The primary aim of the study was to determine normative data regarding the fears in a selected group of middle childhood South African children with respect to content, number, level and pattern of fears.

The secondary aim was to ascertain whether any differences in the fears expressed were found with respect to the independent variables of culture, gender and socio-economic status. The measuring instruments used to obtain the fear scores were the Free Option Method (FOM) and the Fear Survey

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Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R). More specifically, with regard to the FOM, the content and number of fears expressed were determined and for the FSSC-R the content, number, level and pattern of fears were determined. Furthermore, a comparison to disclose any differences between the two measuring instruments was also determined.

1.3. OVERVIEW OF THE THESIS

Chapter 1 is the introduction into the thesis. The motivation for the research is stated here. The importance of middle childhood fear research is also emphasised. The broad aims of the research with respect to the primary and secondary aims are outlined. An overview of the thesis, as well as further motivation for the order in which items were mentioned and the inclusion of certain items are provided.

Chapter 2 comprises the literature review. Key terms are explained and defined. The research regarding the dependent variables is summarised. The literature review combines sources for number and level of fears. The reason for this is that often in past research these two categories have been linked and that these two categories are directly correlated (i.e. if a high score is found in the one category, it will also be present in the other category) (Gullone, 2000; Ingman et al., 1999; Ollendick et al., 1996). In a recent paper, Gullone (2000) reviewed more than a century's research into the developmental patterns of normal fear, mentioning the number and the level of fear in one category. The literature review regarding the pattern of fear is brief, because the pattern of fear is equivalent to the level of fear on each of the five factors of the FSSC-R. The research with respect to the level of fear is mentioned in the section prior to the pattern of fear and covers the latter in sufficient detail.

The same holds true for the independent variables where the relevant literature review was reported in the following manner: culture, gender and socio-economic status (SES). The latter two independent variables are included because previous research has shown their importance (Angelino et al., 1956; Fonseca, Yule, & Erol, 1994; Graziano De Giovanni, & Garcia, 1979; Gullone, 2000; Ingman et al., 1999; Scherer & Nakamura, 1968; Ollendick et al., 1985).

The methodology is reported in chapter 3. The participants, research design, measuring instruments, procedure and statistical analysis are mentioned here. Particulars of the sample include the number of participants, the grades they were attending and the time period during which testing

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took place. Motivation for the actual division into the 4 socio-economic levels was also provided. The research design is briefly outlined.

The measuring instruments, the Biographical questionnaire, FOM and FSSC-R are discussed in detail, in the order in which they were administered. Their psychometric properties as well as the relevant criticism are stated. In accordance with previous recommendations (Ollendick et al., 1996) a multi-method assessment strategy by means of the FOM and the FSSC-R was chosen in order to obtain a more comprehensive picture of middle childhood fears.

The procedure regarding the research is outlined. Aspects such as administration of tests and relevant changes to the FSSC-R based on previous research were addressed.

The statistical analysis is also discussed. This is done in the order of content, number, level and pattern of fears. An explanation is provided of how each result was obtained.

The results are reported in chapter 4. The independent variable, culture, is reported first with respect to all dependent variables: content, number, level and pattern of fears. The same applies to gender, which is mentioned after culture. An exception to this procedure is SES. Only the FSSC-R results for the number, level and pattern of fears are provided, because of problems experienced.

The discussion of the results follows in chapter 5. Once again these discussions are mentioned in the order of each independent variables; culture, gender and SES, with each dependent variables, content, number, level and pattern of fear. Relevant South African references are provided. Comparisons of findings to previous research is also done in order to obtain a broader picture of middle childhood fears in the Stellenbosch area.

The conclusion in chapter 6 summarises the findings and their relevance. Furthermore, criticism and problems experienced, especially with respect to SES, are mentioned and the recommendations for future research are given as well as the needs, which should be addressed. In particular, strong emphasis is placed on the need for the development of emic assessment tools as previously suggested by Gullone (2000).

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2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. KEY TERMS

2.1.1. Middle childhood

Middle childhood is known as the period from about the ages of 6 to 12. This is a period of relative calm concerning physical development but is an important era for cognitive, social, emotional and self-concept development (Louw et al., 1998).

For the purpose of this study, the 404 participants selected were between the ages of 8 and 12 years, due to the nature of the questionnaires, presenting possible language and reading difficulties for a younger group.

2.1.2. Fear

Childhood fears can be defined as normal strong emotional reactions to actual or imaginary dangers which fade when the threatening object is removed. They comprise both psychological (i.e. discomfort, distress and terror), physiological changes (i.e. heart palpitations, rapid breathing and profuse sweating) as well as behavioural expressions (i.e. avoidance, escape and tentative approach) (Derevensky, 1979; Fonseca et al., 1994; Graziano et al., 1979). The expression of fear is an individualistic one and is influenced by many factors including past experiences, situational stimuli, temperament and physical as well as cognitive development (Gullone & King, 1992).

A distinction is made between fear and anxiety, defining anxiety as a dysphoric or diffuse feeling similar to fear but that arises without a discernable threat or has a more vague source (Barrios & O'Dell, 1989; Reed, Carter, & Miller, 1992; Sarafino, 1986). Anxiety is seen by some as merely a manifestation of the pattern of reactions experienced by fear (Barrios & O'Dell, 1989; Izard, 1991). The above-mentioned definition of fear and anxiety is supported by the definition of the "Sielkundewoordebook" (Plug, Louw, Gouws, & Meyer, 1997).

The terms "fear" and "anxiety" are often used interchangeably, because they both show a complex pattern of psychological, physiological and behavioural reactions or expressions to a real or imagined threat and because in practice it is difficult to distinguish between them (Barrios &

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O'Dell, 1989; Rachman, 1977, Reed et al., 1992; Sarafino, 1986). For the purpose of this study the terms were used interchangeably.

2.1.3. Culture

A great deal has been written about culture and cultural theory. The International Dictionary of Psychology (Sutherland, 1989) defines culture as: 'The beliefs, customs, and artifacts that the members of a society tend to have in common, and that they pass on to one another (p.103)'. This definition is further supported by the "Sielkundewoordeboek" (Plug et al., 1997).

Culture is defined by Helman (1994) as

> a set of guidelines (both explicit and implicit), which individuals inherit as members of a particular society, and which tells them how to view the world, how to experience it emotionally, and how to behave in it in relation to other people, to supernatural forces or gods, and to the natural environment. It also provides them with a way of transmitting these guidelines to the next generation - by the use of symbols, language, art and ritual.
> (Helman, 1994, p. 2-3)

The implication of the above mentioned is that culture cannot be static because the interpretation of rules within a given culture can vary and change due to changing, moving or differing circumstances arising over time. Culture is about adapting to a specific environment, an understanding of the rules of the specific environment and the manner in which these rules are enacted, experienced and transmitted (Swartz, 1998).

The household definition of culture as by Hofstede (1980) is 'the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another' (Hofstede, 1980, pp 260). He went further to say that culture is a vague concept and often there are two meanings which are confused. These are the same as previously mentioned a) the concept of civilisation and its products and b) broad patterns of thinking, feeling and acting which goes beyond civilisation as such. The definition of culture relates more closely to the latter explanation.

For the purpose of this study culture is referred to as a social reality and is seen as a group of people who have shared patterns of beliefs, feelings, knowledge and share the same context or environment

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in which behaviours develop and can be expressed (Yamamoto, Silva, Ferrari, & Nukariya, 1997). Furthermore culture is defined in terms of the main representative cultural communities in the Stellenbosch area, namely, black, white and coloured South African children.

2.1.4. Gender

The randomly selected sample of the present study did not represent gender equally. A total of 213 boys and 191 girls participated in the present study.

2.1.5. SES

In a study by the Department of Sociology at the University of Stellenbosch (1995), the greater Stellenbosch area was divided into zones according to the monthly income per household, determined by the same study. For the purpose of the present study the sample was divided into 4 socio-economic levels; low, low to medium, medium and medium to high. The participants were divided into the four socio-economic levels depending on the zone in which the school they attended was situated.

2.1.6. Definition of dependent variables

The **content** of fear was determined by the ten most common fears expressed by the selected group of children according to the FOM and the FSSC-R. The terms "type" and "content" will be used interchangeably during this study.

The **number** of fears refers to the number of items endorsed "a lot" on the FOM and the FSSC-R. The terms "number" and "frequency" will be used interchangeably during this study.

The **level** of fear was determined by the sum of the responses to the 80 items on the FSSC-R. For the purpose of this study, the level of fear will be indicated by the children's responses to the various stimuli on a 3 point scale (none = 1, some =2 and a lot =3). The terms "level" and "intensity" will be used interchangeably in this study.

The **pattern** of fear is derived from the factor scale scores, this being the sum of the responses of the items contained on each of the following five factors, which are: fear of failure and criticism,

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fear of the unknown, fear of minor injury and small animals, fear of danger and death and medical fears. The pattern of fear is also often referred to as the factor structure.

2.2. MIDDLE CHILDHOOD IN CONTEXT: A DEVELOPMENTAL PERSPECTIVE

The ecological systems model of Bronfenbrenner (1986) is considered as a very influential model of human development (Craig, 1996). This theory accounts for all the interrelated systems as the child develops.

When an attempt is made to understand children's development, there are four interacting dimensions, which need to be taken into consideration. These are the person factors (i.e., characteristics of the child or parent), process factors (i.e., the type and form of interaction processes within a family), contexts and time. The enduring proximal interaction processes (i.e., face-to-face interactions between children and other people) are quite common and are seen as most important in shaping stable aspects of development. These interactions are influenced by the characteristics or temperament of the child, the other persons involved and the context in which the interaction occurs. One needs to bear in mind that the context, person and process elements change due to children's maturation and environmental changes (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1986).

The ecological environment is seen as an arrangement of four a concentric systems namely, microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem and macrosystem (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1986). These systems are continuously interacting and the development of the child takes place across all these areas. The developing child influences and restructures the environment in which he lives but is at the same time being influenced by his environment in a dynamic two-way interaction (Craig, 1996).

2.2.1. Microsystem

Interactive situations occur in the microsystem where the child is in face-to-face contact with another person. It is bi-directional in nature and the outcome of the interaction is influenced by all the partners involved.

The microsystem is the child's immediate social and physical environment and refers to the activities, roles and interpersonal relations experienced by the child in a particular setting. This can

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refer for example to the day care centre, home or school (Craig, 1996). The intrapsychic and interpsychic dynamics are included at this level as well.

Middle childhood covers the ages of approximately 6 to 12 years, where cognitive and social skills are developed. Some of the aspects which need to be taken into consideration during this period are Freud's psychosexual theory, psycho-social development (Erikson) and cognitive development (Piaget).

The influence of Sigmund Freud (1856-1939), a psychoanalyst, on psychology cannot be disputed, merely because he was one of the most famous psychologists. According to Freud's **psychosexual theory** an individuals life span can be divided into five stages, namely; oral, anal, phallic, latent and genital stages. He called the middle childhood period the latency stage, suggesting that no significant psychosexual developmental contributions occur. During this period the sexual and aggressive impulses are repressed and are found to be active only in the unconscious (Louw et al., 1998; Newman & Newman, 1999).

Erik H. Erikson (1963) was trained as a psychoanalyst but became one of the most important Neo-Freudians with respect to child development. His **psycho-social theory** covers the entire life span and presents a positive and optimistic view of human development (Louw et al., 1998, Turner & Helms, 1995). The life span was divided into eight stages. In each stage there are two opposing poles and the stage is characterised by a crisis. The solution lies within a synthesis of the two poles resulting in a new life situation and not within choosing the more positive pole. This means that each stage is dominated by a predominant theme of a positive and a negative extreme. The crisis in each life stage is in some way related to an element in society (Louw et al., 1998; Turner & Helms, 1995). According to his psycho-social theory of development the major developmental crisis at stage four where the child is aged between 6 to 11 years, is the conflict between industry and inferiority. Industry at this stage represents an eagerness to acquire skills as well as master them, becoming competent and performing meaningful work. On an intrapsychic level Erikson (1963) postulated that middle childhood is very important because the attitudes towards work are established. By this, independence and responsibility are increased which in turn increases the sense of worth. Support, good role models, adequate training and education are of importance (Craig, 1996). Inferiority is represented by feelings of worthlessness and inadequacy which arise from negative feedback from the self and the social environment where the interaction with peers plays an important role (Newman & Newman, 1997). Poor training and a lack of support, direction

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and reinforcement can result in the child feeling inferior (Craig, 1996). The important question that a child asks himself at this stage is whether he can master the new skills required to survive and to adapt.

The understanding of **cognitive development** during childhood was enhanced by the French-speaking Swiss, Jean Piaget (1986-1980). His description of conceptual development is seen as unique and is one of the most comprehensive ones (Louw et al., 1998; Turner & Helms, 1995).

He conceptualizes four stages of cognitive development. According to Piaget, the third period of cognitive development takes place during the ages of 7 and 11 or 12 years. This period is known as the concrete operational stage where children develop the ability to rely on logical operations in order to form their own conclusions. They are also able to classify things as well as to deal with the hierarchy of classification. Their thinking becomes more adult-like, with them understanding and achieving conservation (Craig, 1996). The cognitive skills of middle childhood children increase largely due to the fact that they are attending school. Differences, however, are apparent between children, depending on the quality of the school and the regularity with which a child is attending school as well as the resources of the school. When the children understand class inclusion they realise for example, that the class of animals is further subdivided into subscales and that these are even further subdivided.

Lev Vygotsky (quoted in Dworetzky, 1995), a Russian researcher, described the possible effect of environmental influences on cognitive structures. The **moral development** of a child might be influenced by the level of cognitive development. Morals are the attitudes and beliefs which determine what is right and wrong. Three levels of moral development were postulated by Lawrence Kohlberg namely: the preconvential, the conventional and the post conventional (Kohlberg, 1981).

In summary, the thought process becomes more competent, flexible and powerful as the concepts of decentering, reversibility and conservation are understood and applied (Craig, 1996; Piaget & Inhelder, 1958).

Concerning **emotional development**, middle childhood is a period were greater emotional maturity is reached. A change occurs from helplessness to independence and self-sufficiency. Emotional flexibility and greater emotional differentiation are also acquired. The nature and quality of

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emotional expression is, however, affected by gender-role stereotyping. The need to express their emotions is universal to all children but this is often prevented by gender-role stereotyping. In our society, for instance, it is often not acceptable when boys cry or show fear and girls are often criticised for being aggressive. Gender-role stereotyping restraints children from using their entire emotional repertoire as can be seen by the above-mentioned example (Turner & Helms, 1995). Sex-role expectations of the parents can also influence the number as well as intensity, of fears that children are willing to report (Graziano et al., 1979).

Van der Zanden (1993, 1997) points out that from the ages of 6 to 11 children's knowledge of their emotions and emotional experiences change enormously. Emotions are increasingly attributed to internal causes by children. Awareness of the social rules governing the expression of emotions arises, the ability to 'read' facial expressions with greater accuracy is developed, the understanding that their emotional states can be altered psychologically commences (eg. thinking of something cheerful when feeling upset); and they realise that people have the ability to experience various emotions at the same time. Children, as they grow older, acquire the ability to identify and attach emotional labels such as "anger", "fear", "sadness" and "happiness" to their inner feelings. The understanding of other people's feelings and the reasons behind those feelings begins as well. During the same time a refinement regarding changing, containing and hiding their feelings occurs.

Parent-child relationships, peer friendships and the participation in meaningful interpersonal communication equip the children with social skills which are essential if they are to cope with further upcoming challenges during adulthood. Peer groups are very important for school age children both in and out of school. The sense of belonging and acceptance are major concerns (Newman & Newman, 1997).

Self-concept develops quickly during middle childhood and this can thus be seen as a sensitive period because certain types of experiences have important consequences for the its development (Louw et al., 1998). A shift occurs in how children describe themselves. They move from describing themselves through activities (eg. I can run) to how well they can accomplish a task (eg. I can run faster than Mary). The ability to assess themselves with greater precision arises (Harter, 1982).

Knowledge of themselves is based on various aspects such as their achievements, their needs and the expectations others have of them. The extent to which children have the ability to regulate their

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own behaviour influences their self-concept. As such, it is imperative that the believe in their ability to meet personal and social requirements is developed (Louw et al., 1998).

During middle childhood a large part of a child's day is spent at school. Thus it is fair to assume that the school plays a very important role in a child's life. Since the child between the age of 9 and 13 has spent at least 3 years in school and has developed writing, reading and spelling skills, it is appropriate to and within their capabilities to complete a questionnaire with assistance, if required. Language development improves to better vocabulary, sentence structure and the ability to adapt language to the context in which it is used (Louw et al., 1998). The school years are marked by emotions becoming more specific and sophisticated (Turner & Helms, 1995).

In conclusion the issues of industry, mastery, achievement, success, social skills, co-operativeness and interpersonal sensitivity are salient. The orientation towards work and friendship, essential aspects of adult life, begins.

2.2.2. Mesosystem

The mesosystem links all the microsystems in which the child is involved, thus being a set of associated microsystems (Craig, 1996; Richter, 1994). In other words the mesosystem is formed by interrelations among two or more settings. The development is being influenced by informal and formal settings between the home, school and peer groups (Craig, 1996). For example, a single mother's ability to respond to her child's emotional needs is diminished due to economic strain, placing the child in a vulnerable position (Richter, 1994). The child, however, may be exposed to a positive environment at the school by a friendly teacher, aiding in boosting the self esteem. This would provide a positive influence in the school-child microsystem which in turn would reduce the stress in the family microsystem (Rutter, 1985).

2.2.3. Exosystem

The exosystems are more removed from the child, not involving the child itself directly but, instead, the interactions of those who have a relationship with the child (i.e., parents' relationship with employer). The people who have proximal relationships with the child are directly affected by these contexts. A further example could be a parent becoming unemployed and the subsequent effect on the child's life.

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2.2.4. Macrosystem

The broader political and cultural level which exerts an influence on all other levels of the systems within which the child is involved is referred to as the macrosystem. The macrosystem comprises values, laws and customs of the culture or society in which the child lives. It also consists of historical events such as Apartheid and its consequences. In particular, the negative impact on the economy, education and the level of violence are referred to by Dawes and Donald (1994). The consequences of the South African macrosystem, as claimed by Dawes and Donald (1994) are the development of fear, hatred and despair. Interventions to encourage development are especially critical at this level, because of the power of this level to influence all the other levels (Bronfenbrenner, 1983).

This theory stresses the need to understand the development of the self in terms of the everyday environment in which a child grows up (Meyer, Loxton & Boulter, 1997).

The fears of children can be influenced by the interaction of the systems.

Bronfenbrenner argues that the developing child is influenced by the interactions which occur in the microsystems as well as the events occurring in adjoining systems. Thus the developing child is at once a complete individual system as well as being a component of one or more larger systems (Newman & Newman, 1997).

The social learning theory also emphasises that the observation and imitation of models are important in the acquiring of new responses.

The ecological framework has made room for a more culturally sensitive approach to development as well as to interventions (Ogbu, 1981).

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2.3. FEAR IN MIDDLE CHILDHOOD

2.3.1. Retrospective accounts of assessment tools

Information regarding fears has been gathered by various methods and across all ages. The well-known FSSC-R has also contributed to a large extent to the accumulation of normative information concerning childhood fears. This body of work includes information about patterns of children's fears determined by age, gender and how these patterns may vary across countries and cultures such as the United States, Australia, Great Britain, China, Nigeria and Kenya (Ingman et al., 1999; Ollendick, & King, 1991; Ollendick et al., 1985, 1989, 1996).

Over the past century various assessment tools have been used to enquire about children's fears. These include the following:

- **Observational investigations** (Jerslid & Holmes, 1935a).

- **Parent/Teacher reports** (Bouldin & Pratt, 1998; Cummings, 1944, 1946; Draper & James, 1985; Jerslid & Holmes, 1935b; Lapouse & Monk, 1959; Muris & Merckelbach, 2000).

- **Child interviews** (Bauer, 1976; Caroll & Ryan-Wenger, 1999; Derevensky, 1979; Dibrell & Yamamoto, 1986; Eme & Schmidt, 1978; Jerslid & Holmes, 1935a; Maurer, 1965; Muris, Merckelbach, Gadet, & Moulaert, 2000b; Muris, Merckelbach, Mayer, & Prins 2000a; Slee & Cross, 1989; Sidana, 1975).

- **Fear list investigations** (Angelino et al., 1956; Muris et al., 1997a, 1997b, 2000a; Nalven, 1970; Pratt, 1945)

- **Self-rating checklists** (Bamber, 1974; Burnham & Gullone, 1997; Caroll & Ryan-Wenger, 1999; Croake, 1969; Dong et al., 1994, 1995; Elbedour et al., 1997; Gullone & King, 1992, 1993, 1997; Ingman et al., 1999; King et al., 1989; Lane & Gullone, 1999; McCathie & Spence, 1991; Muris, Merckelbach, Mayer, van Brakel, Thissen, Moulaert, & Gadet, 1998b; Muris et al., 1997b, 1998a; Neal et al., 1993; Ollendick 1983; Ollendick et al., 1985; 1989; 1991; 1996; Ollendick, Yang, Dong, Xia, & Lin, 1995; Ramirez & Kratochwill, 1990; Scherer & Nakamura, 1968; Slee & Cross, 1989; Spence & McCathie,

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1993; Tikalsky & Wallace, 1988; Van Eeden, 1989).

- **Projective techniques** (Caroll & Ryan-Wenger, 1999; Koppitz, 1968; Martalas, 1999; Poster, 1989)

A laboratory-based observational (in vivo) study was conducted by Jerslid and Holmes (1935a), this being a very comprehensive approach with research problems such as organisational logistics. Despite the problems encountered, early insights into fear patterns as well as fear arousing stimuli were documented. The need for greater methodological rigour was recognised and searched for.

Assessing children's fears via third party reports from parents (Lapouse & Monk, 1959) and or teachers (Cummings, 1944, 1946) was a method more frequently made use of. A tendency was noted of mothers underestimating children's fears in comparison to reports by the children themselves. It was found to be particularly true for the number of fears. This was ascribed to older children's ability to mask their fears (Lapouse & Monk, 1959). Results from parent or teacher reports thus clearly need to be interpreted with caution especially where older children are concerned (Gullone, 2000). Parents were interviewed regarding the severity of childhood fears in a recent study by Muris and Merckelbach (2000). Interesting to note is that the findings correlate to those of an earlier study by Muris, Merckelbach, Schmidt and Mayer (1999), where the children were the informants. No underestimating by parents of the severity of childhood fears was apparent, but it is important to realise that the samples for each of these studies are not exactly comparable with respect to the age groups and SES.

In another more recent study by Bouldin and Pratt (1998), the Fear Survey Schedule for Children II (FSSC-II) (Gullone & King, 1992) was modified in order to utilise it as a parent report in the investigation of children's fears between the ages of 3 and 9 years. Gender differences were found to be consistent with previous research with respect to the overall level and specific types of reported fears (Gullone & King, 1992; King et al., 1989; Ollendick, 1983). Gender differences could however be attributed to parents reporting in accordance with sex-role expectations rather than actual differences in fear responses. Age related changes were found to be present as well. The recommendation for future research was to address the need to investigate parent reporting of fears in direct comparison with self-reporting by children, especially for those ages where reliable data can be obtained for children. The potential usefulness of the modified schedule for assessing fearfulness in children was noted (Bouldin & Pratt, 1998).

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Data regarding children's fears was also gathered by interviewing the children (e.g. Derevensky, 1979; Jersild & Holmes, 1935a; Maurer,1965, Slee & Cross, 1989). Differences in fear content became clearer with animal fears being prominent among younger children (Derevensky, 1979; Maurer, 1965), fears of imaginary creatures and darkness were prominent between the ages of 6 to 10 (Bauer, 1976; Derevensky, 1979; Maurer,1965) and an increase of fears related to bodily injury in later years (Bauer, 1976).

Children were simply asked to list their fears in fear list investigation (Muris et al., 1997a, 1997b, 2000a). Fear survey checklists have been commonly used over the past years to assess children's fears. In particular the Fear Survey Schedule (FSS) has become the exclusive assessment tool with a few exceptions (Gullone, 2000). Other examples of self-report schedules are the Louiseville Fear Survey and the Revised Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale (RCMAS).

Projective techniques have advantages in that they are not language dependent and the researcher's role is diminished. They were found to be effective assessment tools for assessing a person's internal feelings and thoughts such as anxiety (Poster, 1989). Human figure drawings are commonly used to assess children's feelings and intentions (Koppitz, 1968). The Goodenough-Draw-A-Man test (DAP) is an example of a projective technique used quite frequently. In a study by Caroll and Ryan-Wenger (1999) high correlations were found to exists between anxiety scores, the number of fears and the emotional indicators obtained from the human figure drawings of children aged 8 to 12.

2.3.2. Fear

During middle childhood, the development of greater emotional maturity is accompanied by acquired emotional flexibility and greater emotional differentiation. The ability to identify and attach emotional labels such as anger, fear, sadness and happiness to their inner feelings arises (Louw et al., 1998; Turner & Helms, 1995).

According to developmental psychology, the emotion of fear is experienced by people of all ages primarily because of its survival value (Louw et al., 1998). Research regarding normative fears of children and adolescents has aided the understanding of children's emotional development enormously (Burnham & Gullone, 1997).

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Fears experienced during middle childhood are a natural phenomenon are common and change predictably with development, especially cognitive. This has been shown by various studies based on fears in children and adolescents (Bauer, 1976; Elbedour et al., 1997; Graziano et al., 1979; King et al., 1988; King, Ollendick, & Tonge, 1997b; Marks, 1987; Maurer, 1965; Ollendick et al., 1985; Slee, & Cross, 1989).

As almost all the fear dimensions such as content, number, level and pattern, change with development, they provide the momentum for avoiding danger and are dependent on the age of the child without necessarily causing great distress to the child (Ollendick, 1983). They also promote the development of certain types of behaviour which are beneficial to stress-relating circumstances (King et al., 1988). Some fears however can become excessive, maladaptive and persistent causing considerable distress to the child (Muris et al., 1997a). The research of the past years has shown that persistent fears can lead to or are associated with other unpleasant emotions such as depression and anxiety (King, Gullone, & Ollendick, 1992; Ollendick, & Yule, 1990) as well as lower self-concepts (Ollendick, 1983). In a study by Ollendick and King (1994) 60% of the children indicated that the fear which they experienced causes " a lot" of distress. It was however pointed out by the researcher that in order to obtain a clear picture, the connection between fears and other anxiety disorders as well as phobias needs to be further examined.

Fears and the expression of them depends to a certain extend on age, social class, culture and even a particular moment in history. Thus, what children fear is influenced by social and historic moments and individual experiences. To a certain extent fears are innately determined but the fact that children fear what they are taught to fear should not be ignored (Graziano et al., 1979). Following this, one can say that the expression of fear is an individualistic one which is also influenced by past experience, situational stimuli, temperament and physical as well as cognitive development (Gullone & King, 1992)

It is important for adults to realise that the fears of children reflect something of their understanding of the world as well as their place in it. This was demonstrated in an Australian study by Slee and Cross (1989), where the fear of nuclear war was expressed by 67,4 % of the participants. As children grow older, their emotional fears are replaced with social concerns, such as nuclear war and its consequences.

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Numerous studies over the past 60 years concerning the incidence of fears and their evolution have contributed to the body of knowledge of fears, making it well documented (King et al., 1988; Marks, 1987). The research focus of these studies has either been one of the following or a combination of them: fear content, the prevalence of fears, as well as the intensity; which differ depending upon age, gender, culture and socio-economic status (Gullone, 2000).

The body of work consists of normative data which has mainly been gathered in English-speaking countries. Only a few studies have attempted to explore the pattern of incidence and development of fears in different cultures. Such studies provide better understanding and contribute to a more comprehensive body of knowledge regarding childhood fears and in the end this contributes to more effective prevention as well as treatment. Such an example which lends itself to better understanding of childhood fears is a study by Neal et al. (1993) who administered the FSSC-R to 233 children between the ages of 6 and 12 in north eastern Ohio, North America. It was found that of the 11 most common fears for African American children, eight were the same as the fears for white children. This indicates the possibility that the most common fears are similar and transcend race and culture.

2.3.3. Content

The identification of the most common fears in the past has been a major area of focus in fear research, with the consistent finding that they are death and danger related (King et al., 1989, Ollendick, 1983). The ten most common fears reported by children in middle childhood in an early study by Scherer and Nakamura (1968) were: being sent to the principal, failing a test, getting poor grades, being hit by a car or truck, getting burned-fire, bombing attacks-being invaded, germs or getting a serious illness, not being able to breath, death or dead people and having my parents argue. The majority of these fears fell under the death and danger subscale. The ten most common fears for the boys were the following: bombing attacks-being invaded, falling from high places, getting punished by my father, being sent to the principal, a burglar breaking into my house, being hit by a car or truck, germs or getting a serious illness, not being able to breathe, earthquakes and death or dead people. Seven of the mentioned items coincided with the girls' fears. The three unmatched items for the boys were: getting punished by my father, germs or getting a serious illness and death or dead people. The three unmatched items for the girls were: snakes, getting lost in a strange place and fire-getting burned. Once again the most common items for the boys and girls fell under the death and danger category.

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The ten most common fears according to various recent studies where the FSSC-R was implemented were: not being able to breathe, being hit by a car or truck, bombing attack, getting burned by fire, falling from a high place, burglar breaking into the house, earthquake, death, illness and snakes (Ollendick et al., 1989, 1991; Ollendick & King, 1994). The majority of these fears were loaded as well onto the danger and death subscale. This predominance of death and danger-related stimuli among the most common fears has been reported to remain fairly stable over time by longitudinal studies (Gullone & King; 1997; Spence & McCathie, 1993) and lending support to the proposal that we are biologically prepared to fear certain stimuli (Marks, 1987; Seligman, 1971). Upon comparison of the ten most common fears experienced by children over the years, it becomes apparent that the most common fears have remained relatively stable.

2.3.4. Number and level of fears

It is important at this stage to motivate the decision to mention the number and level of fears under one category. The literature review for number and level is reported at the same time, because the number and level of fears are directly correlated and in past research these categories have often been linked together. An example of recent research where the number and the level of fears were mentioned under one category is that of Gullone (2000).

According to Jerslid and Holmes (1935a) research results of an early observational study provided an indication of fear intensity, reporting a tendency of the fear level to decrease with age.

The evidence from recent studies involving American, Australian and Chinese children, shows that with an increase in age, there is a general decline in the number and intensity of fears (Angelino et al., 1956; Burnham & Gullone, 1997; Dong et al., 1995; Gullone & King, 1992, 1997; King et al., 1989; Lapouse & Monk, 1959; Slee & Cross, 1989; Spence & McCathie, 1993). Ollendick et al. (1985) divided their sample into 4 age groups; 7 to 9, 10 to12, 13 to15 and 16 to 18. They found a linear decline in the number of fears, according to the results on the FSSC-R, with an increase of age. The 7 to 9 year olds revealed an average of 14,24 fears, the 10 to12-year-olds 13,64 fears, the 13 to 15- year-olds 12,08 fears and the 16 to 18-year-olds 11,55 fears. However, the decline is not necessarily always a linear one (Graziano et al., 1979).

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Research done on Chinese children by Dong et al. (1994) contrasted with the above-mentioned. The sample was divided into three age groups: 7 to 10, 11 to 13 and 14 to 17 and it was found that the level of fear as well as number of fears increased from the age of 11 to 13. This finding was applicable to the Chinese children only. It was noted that the Chinese child-rearing practices and educational goals placed greater emphasis on the opinions of others than common in American and Australian cultures. Socio-evaluative fears increased for the age group because educational pressures to achieve were at their height at that particular age.

The Bedouin Israeli children revealed that the highest level of fear was for the 8-year-olds after which the fear level declined with the exception of the 10-year-olds where an increase from the 9-year-olds to 10-year-olds was revealed. The lowest level of fear was for the 9-year-olds. The Jewish Israeli children also had the highest level of fear for the 8-year-olds and 9-year-olds. An exception to linear decline was also found where the 11-year-olds displayed a higher level of fear than the 10-year -olds. The 10-year-olds and 12-year-olds revealed the lowest level of fear. Possible explanations for the earlier decline in the level of fear for the Bedouin Israeli children was the speculation that greater parental control for Bedouin children gave them a sense of security and safety which contributed to an earlier decline in fear levels whereas the Jewish Israeli children where expected to be more independent and subsequently felt less fearful only at a later stage around, 10 (Elbedour et al., 1997).

Some studies have, however, found no such relationship between age and the number of fears (Derenvensky, 1979; Maurer, 1965; Ollendick, 1983; Ollendick et al., 1985, 1991; Scherer & Nakamure, 1968; Sidana, 1975).

In a study by Ollendick (1983) it was found that girls reported an average of 13 excessive fears and boys reported an average of 9 excessive fears in the age group of 8 to 11. Lapouse and Monk (1959) conducted a study in the late fifties were it was reported that a child expressed an average number of 11 fears in the age group of 6 to 12. Girls reported an average of 16,14 fears and boys an average of 8,28 fears in a study of 7 to 18 year olds (Ollendick et al., 1985). In the light of the above it becomes apparent that the research regarding the number of fears is extensive and often yields different results, depending on certain factors such as the method used and the participants ages. What is depicted by the above is that boys tend to have fewer fears than girls and that both boys and girls express multiple fears.

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The results of some of the research over the past few years regarding the number of fears are presented in Table 1.

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Table 1
Summary of Normative Data Regarding the Number of Fears of Children Based on some of the Previous Research

Study	Instrument	Country/Culture	Age group	All	Girls	Boys
Angelino et al. (1956)	Requested to write down fears and worries	North America	9-18		4	
Dong et al. (1994)	FSSC-R	China	7-17		18	12
			7-10	16		
			11-13	17		
			14-17	12		
Ingman et al. (1999)	FSSC-R	Nigeria	8-17	25,1		
		Kenya	8-17	20,94		
			8-17	24,83		
			8-17	22,17		
King et al. (1989)	FSSC-R	Australia	8-16		18	10
Lapouse & Monk (1959)	Interview Schedule	North America	6-12	11		
Nalven (1970)	Requested to write down fears and worries	North America	10-11	5,33		
Ollendick (1983)	FSSC-R	North America	8-11		13	9
Ollendick et al. (1985)	FSSC-R	North America	7-18		16,14	8,28
Ollendick et al. (1996)	FSSC-R	North America	7-17	13,6	17	10,2
			7-10	16,96		
			11-13	11,97		
			14-17	11,88		
		Australia	7-17	14,29	17,53	11,04
			7-10	19,84		
			11-13	13,81		
			14-17	9,21		
		China	7-17	15,52	18,32	12,73
			7-10	16,91		
			11-13	17,04		
			14-17	12,62		
		Nigeria	7-17	26,08	25,82	26,34
			7-10	28,17		
			11-13	24,89		
			14-17	25,18		
		Overall	7-17	17,37	19,67	15,08
			7-10	20,47		
			11-13	16, 93		
			14-17	14,72		
Ollendick et al. (1989)	FSSC-R	America & Australia	7-16		18	10
			7-10	17		
			11-13	13		
			14-16	12		
		North America	7-16	14		
		Australia	7-16	14		

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Study	Instrument	Country/Culture	Age group	All	Girls	Boys
Slee & Cross (1989)	Self-rating Checklist	Australia	4-7	10,6	12,1	9,2
			8-12	9,4	11,5	7,2
			13-19	8,0	9,6	6,4
			4-19	9,3	11,1	7,6
Shore & Rapport (1998)	FSSC-HI	Hawaii	7-9	30,33	33,33	26,33
			10-12	21,65	24,27	18,98
			13-16	15,46	16,43	14,47
			7-16	22,48	25,21	19,54

The symbol 'M' in Table 2 represents the mean level of fear. This score can be seen as a level of fear (sum of the responses to the 80 items) out of 240 possible points. A summary from some of the research regarding the level of fear is depicted in Table 2.

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Table 2
Summary of the Level of Fear Based on some of the Previous Research

Study	Instrument	Country/Culture	Age group	All	Girls	Boys
Dong et al. (1994)	FSSC-R	Chinese	7-10	131,84		
			11-13	138,54		
			14-17	129,71		
			7-17		141,62	125,67
Elbedour et al. (1999)	FSSC-R	Bedouin Israeli	8-12	135,77		
		Jewish Israeli	8-12	98,53		
		Israel	8-12		127,99	108,32
Gullone & King (1993)	FSSC-R	Australia	7-10	139,10		
			11-14	131,16		
			15-18	124,74		
			7-18		142,72	121,36
Ingman et al. (1999)	FSSC-R	Nigeria	8-12	164,07		
		Kenya	8-12	153,36		
King et al. (1989)	FSSC-R	Australia	8-10	140		
			11-13	136		
			14-16	131		
			8-16		145	126
McCathie & Spence, (1991)	FSSC-R	Australia	Grade 3		168,28	117,90
			Grade 4		139,04	124,11
			Grade 5		142,00	128,8
			Grade 6		134,89	120,77
			Overall	135,11		
Ollendick et al. (1996)	FSSC-R	U.S.A.	7-10	139,83		
			11-13	132,00		
			14-17	127,77		
			7-17	133,20	141,08	125,32
		Australia	7-10	144,86		
			11-13	134,14		
			14-17	122,53		
			7-17	133,20	143,77	123,92
		China	7-10	133,36		
			11-13	137,70		
			14-17	130,32		
			7-17	133,79	141,61	125,98
		Nigeria	7-10	164,36		
			11-13	160,42		
			14-17	162,74		
		not significant	7-17	162,51	161,17	163,85
		All	7-10	145,60		
			11-13	141,60		
			14-17	135,84		
			7-17	140,84	146,91	134,77
Ollendick et al. (1985)	FSSC-R	America	7-9	137,11		
			10-12	139,12		
			13-15	136,63		
			16-18	137,60		
			7-18		142,64	123,35

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Study	Instrument	Country/Culture	Age group	All	Girls	Boys
Ollendick et al. (1989)	FSSC-R	America	7-10	138,83		
		Australia	11-13	133,44		
			14-16	129,46		
			7-18		143,91	124,93
		America	7-18	134,50		
		Australia	7-18	133,70		
Ollendick et al. (1991)	FSSC-R	Britain	8-10	138,33	143,29	133,03
Ollendick et al. (1995)	FSSC-R	China	7-10	132,29		
			11-13	137,98		
			14-17	130,61		
			7-17		141,61	125,99
Shore & Rapport (1998)	FSSC-HI	Hawaii	7-16	139,61	146,79	135,84
		Asian American	7-16	164,92	167,26	161,89
		Filipinos	7-16	162,31	170,22	157,40
		Hawaiins native	7-16	160,60	165,85	153,30
		All	7-16	159,29	165,74	155,09
		All	7-9	173,83	178,99	166,96
		All	10-12	157,72	163,80	151,49
		All	13-16	146,33	150,77	142,22
		All	7-16	159,29	165,36	152,67

2.3.5. Pattern of fear

The pattern of fear is determined by the sum of the responses of the items contained on each of the factors. Thus the pattern of fear is the exploration of the level of fear on each of the factors. The deduction being that the pattern of fear provides further information regarding the level of fear on each respective factor. The pattern of fear is also connected to the content of fear because the factor from which the ten most common fears originate is often mentioned in the same context.

Factor 1 is the fear of failure and criticism and concerns aspects such as the fear of looking foolish or being teased. Factor 2 is the fear of the unknown and some of the fears loaded onto this factor are thunderstorms, dark rooms or closets and travelling by train. The fear of injury and small animals is represented by factor 3 and the fear of lizards, guns and flying in a plane are examples of the items loaded onto this factor. Factor 4 is the fear of danger and death and concerns items such as death or dead people, earthquakes and fire or getting burned. Factor 5, the last factor, concerns medical fears and examples of the items loaded onto this factor are: fear of travelling by a car,

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going to the dentist and getting car sick. This five factor solution was found to be appropriate and was derived from factor analysis by Ollendick (1983).

The Fear Survey Schedule for Children and Adolescents-II (FSSC-II) was administered to 918 Australian children and adolescents, ranging from the ages of 7 to 18 years by Gullone and King (1993). The five factors for the FSSC-II are: death and danger, the unknown, failure and criticism, animals and psychic stress-medical fears. The results indicated that the most prevalent fears continue to be related to danger and death.

The pattern of fear in study by Ollendick et al. (1991), where 327 British school children were examined by means of the FSSC-R, was found to be similar upon comparison to the pattern of fear of 825 Chinese children in a study by Dong et al. (1994).

Elbedour et al., (1997) administered a modified version of the FSSC-R to 865 Israeli Jewish and Israeli Bedouin children, aged from 8 to 12 years. The five factors are: fear of physical injuries, fear of the unknown, fear of being hassled, fear of evaluation and fear of failure or punishment. The Jewish children feared physical injuries most, followed by fear of the unknown and punishment, being least afraid of being hassled or of evaluation. The Bedouin children feared three things mainly: physical injuries, the unknown and punishment. They were least afraid of being hassled or evaluation, similar to their Jewish counterparts. Age differences were present on three of the five factors for the Jewish children. These were; fear of physical injuries, fear of the unknown and fear of failure and punishment. Age differences were found for the Bedouin children on all these three factors as well as on the fear of being hassled.

The FSSC-R was administered by Ingman et al. (1999) to 852 children and adolescents of which 551 came from Nigeria and 310 from Kenya. Furthermore, 217 participants practiced Christianity and 635 practiced Islam. The findings indicate that the Nigerian children expressed higher levels of fear on all factors with the exception of the factor of danger and death, than their Kenyan counterparts. The Christian children reported higher levels of fear on three factors, namely; fear of failure and criticism, fear of the unknown as well as the fear of injury and small animals, than the Muslim children. The Muslim children experienced a higher level of fear on the remaining two factors, these being danger and death and medical fears. Ingman et al. (1999) suggested that Muslim children may be encouraged to be braver, thus reporting less fears, or that the possibility exists that the Islamic belief aids children in coping better with their fear than the Christian belief.

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Another result shows younger children reporting a higher level of fear for the fear of the unknown than adolescents, suggesting that children fear the things they have not previously experienced.

The pattern of fear is seldom reported in great detail, but from the above it can be seen that important contributions to the understanding of the expression of fear can be gained from it.

2.3.6. Stability of fears

The stability in content, number and pattern of fears over a one-year period was found to be moderate in a study where fears were examined in 492 (237 boys and 255 girls) Chinese children and adolescents between the ages of 7 and 17. This stability, however, was said to depend on important age and sex factors. In addition, perceptions of fear level in others, perceptions of the controllability and modifiability of the fears were also said to be important determinants of subsequent reported level of fears (Dong et al., 1995).

In another study by Spence & McCathie (1993), where 96 (58 girls and 36 boys) children were involved, the stability of fears in the children was examined. The Grade 3 and 4 children were assessed in early March and April for the first time. Two years later the second assessment took place between the end of February and early April 1994 when the children were attending Grade 5 and 6 respectively. It was found that the most common fears remained relatively stable over time and were primarily concerned with fears of injury, death or danger. An interesting finding was that those who were fearful at the first occasion of testing were more likely to report high levels of fear at the second occasion of testing. The only fear to increase was the fear of giving a spoken report. Since the children were aged between 7 and 10 this correlated with existing data reporting that as a child starts school, social fears and fears of achievement emerge (Turner & Helms, 1995).

Further support is given to the above by a recent study of Gullone and King (1997) who found that gender and initial fear scores were better indicators with which to predict follow-up scores. Findings suggest that fearfulness decreases most markedly during childhood and early adolescent years. Age-related decline of fearfulness was reportedly much more marked for girls than boys. This suggests that fears experienced during late adolescence and approaching adulthood are more enduring.

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2.3.7. Developmental changes in fears

The changes that occur in the content of fear during childhood from imaginary to more realistic fears can be ascribed to developmental changes, more specifically that of differentiation. Development takes place from a state of lack of differentiation to one of internal representations of objective reality. In other words the structure of fear develops from a formless and imaginary to a specific and realistic one (Bauer, 1976; King et al., 1997b). This development plays a role especially in children's perception of reality, socialisation process and the conceptions of death (Bauer, 1976). The exact mechanisms of development is not fully understood, but what is well known is that the change in fears are accredited to the child's cognitive capacity for realising and understanding the potential harm or danger of specific events or places. Following this it could be said that fears are common, adaptive and have a survival value (Dong et al., 1994).

At a very early age children demonstrate simple fears and are scared by their immediate environment such as loud or scary noises, loss of support, abandonment and parental separation. During the toddler years fear of imaginary creatures and small animals prevails. The fear of darkness is predominant, especially at the age of four (Bauer, 1976; Elbedour et al., 1997). Draper and James (1985) found that startling events, noises, animals, certain persons or objects, the dark, being alone and strange sights were sources of anxiety of which young children were most afraid. An increase in the fears of the dark, being alone and strange sights over the last years was also found for the same age group.

The world of a child expands between the ages of 6 to12 from the family outward as new relationships are formed with friends, teachers, caretakers and others due to the commencing of the school career. It is also an important preparation time for adolescence. During middle childhood the fears of bodily injury or harm decrease, but there is an increase in the fears of school especially fears of academic achievement, fears of tests and examinations (Turner & Helms, 1995). Through adolescence it seems that childhood fears start to recede and that the most common fears are related to injury, natural events, social rejection and social anxiety. These remain relatively constant (Ollendick et al., 1985; Elbedour et al., 1997).

The developmental pattern of children's fears is shown in Table 3.

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Table 3

Normative Data on Children's Fears

Age	Fears
0-6 months	Loss of support, loud noises, excessive or unexpected stimuli.
7-12 months	Fear of strangers, novel stimuli (masks, heights), fear of sudden or unexpected objects and of looming objects.
1 years	Parental separation, toilet, injury and strangers.
2 years	A variety of loud noises (i.e. vacuum cleaners, alarms and thunder) animals, dark rooms, parental separation, monsters and imaginary creatures.
3 years	Masks, darkness-being alone, parental separation and large animals.
4 years	Parental separation, animals, darkness and noises.
5 years	Animals, injury, parental separation, and "bad" people.
6 years	Supernatural beings, injuries, natural phenomena, darkness-being alone, and parental separation.
7-8 years	Supernatural beings, darkness-being alone, injuries and global events (i.e. media).
9-12 years	School related fears, injuries, social fears, phenomena and darkness.
13-18 years	Injuries, social anxiety and more global fears.
19+ years	Death, danger, injuries, natural phenomena and global fears.

Sources: Adjusted from Morris and Kratochwill, 1991; Reed et al. 1992

The increase in age also correlates with an increase in ego strength and cognitive abilities. This leads to children having a more mature understanding of their environment and therefore a decrease in the number of fears. The child's understanding of the environment or world is, however, related to the context in which the child lives. It can thus be said that fears of children do not depend only on development but that they also reflect the child's understanding of the world, which in turn is affected by the culture in which a child lives (Slee & Cross, 1989).

Support for the influence of developmental rather than a learned behaviour trend in children's fears is given by Maurer (1965). He noted that the things children are taught to fear, like kidnappers, traffic and germs were rarely mentioned. According to Maurer (1965), as the child matures, the inclination to fear more realistic objects depends on experience learning rather than instruction.

As children grow up there is a predictable parade of normal fears which emerge, plateau and then decline. This whole process is under genetic control with the interaction of the environment. An interruption can be critical depending on the stage at which the interruption occurs. Fears can emerge innately or after a tiny trigger, some, however, need to be learned. Fear can increase in new and unfamiliar settings and with social deprivation (Marks, 1987).

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In summary children at a very early age (1-2 years) experience immediate fears; at a later age (4-8 years) anticipatory or imaginative fears are experienced and adolescents (9-18 years) are most often linked to fears of failure and social criticism (Gullone & King, 1992; Ollendick et al., 1985).

2.3.8. Seriousness of fears

One of the reasons why it is important to gain comprehensive knowledge regarding fear as well as its development because research has shown that excessive fears or fearfulness during childhood may place children at risk to the development of anxiety disorders during adolescence (Biederman, Rosenbaum, Bolduc-Murphy, Faraone, Chaloff, Hirshfeld, & Kagan, 1993).

Unpleasant emotions in childhood such as pervasive anxiety and global depression are often associated with persistent fears (Ollendick & Yule, 1990). In addition, lower self-concepts and more external locus of control orientations are also related to excessive fears in childhood and adolescence (Ollendick, 1983). In particular it was found that children and adolescents who are highly fearful display a tendency to feel less good about themselves, believe they are less efficacious in their ability to control events that take place around them and tend to be somewhat depressed or anxious.

The average number of fears was reported to be 14 in a study by Ollendick et al. (1989). Evidence from other studies indicates similar findings (Ollendick et al., 1996). Thus the need arises to know how serious these fears are. Muris et al. (2000a) conducted a study in order to determine how serious common childhood fears are. The results of the study by Muris et al. (2000a) indicated that childhood fears are common and a normal part of development and that they reflect significant anxiety disorders in a substantial minority. The full criteria for anxiety disorders appeared to be met by one fifth of the children (22,8%). This high prevalence rate was attributed to the procedure used as well as the age-group (8-13) of the study. The results indicate that childhood fears for a substantial minority of children interfere with their daily routine. The seriousness of these fears in the long run was examined by Last, Perrin, Hersen and Kazdin (1996). A group of clinically referred children with anxiety disorders was followed for 3 to 4 years. Results also indicate that an early age of onset and other factors at intake play a role in slower recovery. A high remission rate was found with more than 80% of the children who participated no longer fulfilling the diagnostic criteria for their initial anxiety disorder.

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The frequency of fearful thoughts and avoidance behaviour with respect to children's fears was explored in a study by McCathie and Spence (1991). A robust connection was found amid the fears as well as with the frequency of fearful thoughts and avoidance behaviour, indicating that avoidance behaviour and aversive thoughts accompany children's fears. A reminder was given, however, that the possibility exists that the children between the ages of 10 and 12 could have experienced difficulty understanding the concepts of frequency and avoidance. The children in the study were from Grade 3 to 6.

A large majority of children were found by Ollendick and King (1994) to report that their fears do interfere with daily activities. The above-mentioned research does provide clarity that there is at least a subgroup of children enduring clinically significant and disabling fears.

Further longitudinal studies are needed in order to determine the extent to which anxiety disorders are persistent. In a study by Öst (1987), he found that the earliest onset of phobias was during childhood in specific for simple phobia. The age of onset also depended on the method of acquisition. The study by Muris et al. (2000a) suggest that the relationship between dominant childhood fears and anxiety disorders is not very specific. The present study also suggests that there is a need for early intervention because of the substantial minority of children with anxiety disorders.

2.3.9. Origins of childhood fears

Childhood fears are probably due to an interaction of several factors: biological, environmental and cognitive-mediational (Graziano et al., 1979; King et al. 1988).

Rachman (1977) points out two main pathways of fear acquisition: direct conditioning and indirect conditioning. Indirect conditioning can be further subdivided into two pathways, thus overall presenting three pathways, namely: Direct conditioning, vicarious conditioning and information giving or instruction. According to Rachman (1977) the latter pathway accounts for the largest number of the most commonly encountered fears. It should be borne in mind that the last two pathways of fear acquisition can take place without direct contact with the fear stimuli. Parents and siblings play an important role in the reinforcement of fears.

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Other explanations to fear acquisition include individual difference variables, for example temperament (Kagan, 1989; Kagan & Snidman, 1991; King et al., 1988), cognitive-developmental factors (Miller, 1983) as well as the prepotency and preparedness of the stimuli (Marks, 1969; Seligman, 1971).

The origins of common childhood fears were examined by evaluating the extent of application of Rachman's theory of fear acquisition to the ten most common FSSC-R fears. This was done by Ollendick and King (1991). The children and adolescents were given a brief questionnaire relating to their fears asking them to indicate (a) whether they remembered having a bad or frightening experience relating to their fears (i.e., conditioning), (b) whether their parents, friends, or other acquaintances showed fear when experiencing their fears (i.e., modelling) and (c) whether they had heard or seen frightening things about their fears from the media or other people (i.e., information). Negative information (88,8%) was found to be what the majority of children attributed their fear to. Modelling (56,2%) and conditioning (35,7%) were mentioned, to a lesser degree. It was suggested however that when looking at the overall findings the three pathways of fear are interactive rather than being independent. The criticism against this study was that a broad definition of etiological pathways was used which could have yielded inaccurate estimates of the roles which the pathways play.

In a study by Muris et al. (1997a), it was found that although negative information was reported more often by children than conditioning or modelling, it was not the dominant pathway of fear acquisition. This study suggested that with a more strict definition, the dominant pathway would be found to be conditioning and not the information pathway. It was found that the most prominent pathway was conditioning (45,8%), followed by the information pathway (35,1%) and modelling (only 3,8%). The conditioning pathway was found to be dominant in relation to the fear of animals, medical fears and fear of failure and criticism. The information pathway was found to be dominant with only certain types of fear such as fear of the unknown, danger and death. It was found that highly fearful children more often endorsed conditioning experiences than low or moderately fearful children. The above supports Rachman's (Rachman, 1977, 1991) elaboration of the classical theory; the conditioning model to a more comprehensive theory by means of modifications and extensions of the classical theory. Other recent studies which have similar results lend further support (King, Clowes, Hollins, & Ollendick, 1997a; Milgrom, Mancl, King, & Weinstein, 1995). In summary of the above, it can be said that a more comprehensive view of fear acquisition needs to

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be taken into consideration as suggested by Rachman (1977). Thus social and cultural factors can play an important role as well as having a possible impact.

In a study by Muris et al. (2000b) the distribution of the pathways of fear revealed deviated from the above. Negative information was indicated by a large percentage of children (55,2%) to be involved in the etiology of their main fear. To a lesser degree conditioning (33,1%) and modelling (25,5%) contributed to the etiology of their fears. This deviation can be ascribed to the age range of the children (4-12 years of age). The younger children more frequently reported fears of imaginary creatures. The fact that these fears are mostly attributed to the information pathway provides an adequate explanation, bearing in mind that the children in the study by Muris et al. (1997a) were aged 8 to 12.

In a recent review by King, Gullone, and Ollendick (1998), empirical support was found for Rachman's three pathways theory regarding the origins of common childhood fears. Although there is a substantial amount of scientific evidence on the origins or causes of fears, more research is needed. In the meantime Rachman's (1977) three pathway theory provides a useful framework (King et al., 1997a).

The distribution of normal fear experiences is not adequately explained by the cognitive development and learning pathways. This is were the preparedness concept (Seligman, 1971), derived form Darwin's theory (1859) of natural selection, provides a more sufficient explanation regarding certain stimuli that are biologically significant. The organism is then prepared to learn to fear these stimuli. This prepared learning can be seen as resistant to extinction, selective, probably non-cognitive and can be acquired in one situation.

2.3.10. Special populations

A developmental comparison of normal and exceptional children's fears was explored by Derevensky (1979). The children were between the ages of 6 and 12. They were interviewed individually and asked "What are the things to be afraid of ?" followed by "and what else?" The results were classified into 8 categories. His findings lend further support to developmental trends found. Younger children revealed more unrealistic fears than older children. The chronologically older mentally retarded children or learning disabled children expressed fears similar to those of

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younger normal children. The fears of exceptional children were generally found to have a wider range and to be greater in number than those of normal children.

The level and structure of fear was examined in visually impaired and normally sighted children and adolescents by Ollendick et al. (1985) using the FSSC-R. Provision was made for the visually impaired to ensure adequate assistance as well as to ensure their understanding of stimulus items and response alternatives. Higher total fear scores were found for the visually impaired than the sighted group, leading to the suggestion of significant differences with respect to all levels of fear. Differences with regard to content of fear were also present, with the visually impaired participants being afraid of items depicting potentially dangerous and harmful situations. The normally sighted participants were afraid of psychologically harmful situations. The findings were not surprising to the researchers, because one would expect a visually impaired person to be more fearful in situations in which vision would be an aid or prerequisite to their well being.

Children from the lower SES homes, with respect to the present study can also be seen as a special population, because of the poverty they experience. Children from lower socio-economic homes were found to list more specific fears and children from higher socio-economic homes were found to list more global fears in a study by Graziano et al. (1979). It was also found that the number and level of fear was higher for children from lower socio-economic homes than those from higher socio-economic homes (Neal et al., 1993; Ollendick, 1983; Ollendick et al., 1985, 1989, 1991).

2.4. CULTURE

The aim of this research, as previously mentioned, is to contribute to the understanding and the development of fear in order to compile programmes for effective preventative programmes. For this it is important to know which behavioural patterns are universal and which simply reflect idiosyncrasis within the particular settings, groups or countries in which they are observed. Cultural factors do play a role in the evolution and maintenance of fears. This can be explained simply by taking myths, traditions and stories told into account. For example the following: in a study by Tikalsky and Wallace (1988) a enormous difference in the number of fears expressed between the Navajo and Anglo samples was found. The explanation for this phenomena is that in the Anglo culture, to have many fears is seen as an evil foreboding whereas for the Navajo culture, expressing many fears is seen as displaying intuition. Cultural factors also play a role in indicating the limitations of the theoretical models of fear (Fonseca et al., 1994). The following is a South African

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example of the above-mentioned. In African families the elderly are greatly respected. They are seen as living ancestors, sources of wisdom and transmitters of cultural values. If a younger person shows disrespect to an elder it is believed ill fortune could befall that person (Bozalek, 1997).

In the South African school context it appears that the primary school population makes up the largest proportion of school-going children. The black South African children are represented in this group by the far largest proportion. The white, coloured and asian South African children only contribute to this group to a very small extent (Strauss, Van der Linder, Plekker & Strauss, 1995). In the Stellenbosch area 62% of school-going children attend a primary school (Departement Sosiologie, 1995).

Studies which have been conducted around the world differ not only in language or location but also in cultural variables. These variables can be anything from religious beliefs, housing conditions, literacy levels, child-rearing practices, health and welfare systems, family structure, community support networks, job opportunities, economic as well as scientific developments, sex roles, ethnic, moral as well as family codes, rhythm of social changes, migratory trends and other ancedents of current behaviour (Fonseca et al., 1994). Cross-cultural studies have demonstrated the importance of some of the above-mentioned variables (Elbedour et al., 1997; Ingman et al., 1999; Ollendick et al., 1996; Tikalsky & Wallace, 1988).

According to Hofstede (1980), cultures can be divided along four major dimensions. The first is power distance where equality plays a role. The second is uncertainty avoidance with flexibility being an issue. The third is individualism or collectivism where being alone or together is a factor. The fourth is masculinity or femininity where tough versus tender is a feature. The fifth, which was added at a later stage, refers to long or short-term orientation (Hofstede, 1980, 1991). This was obtained through large scale surveys including initially 40 being extended to 50 countries at a later stage. The results of the surveys indicated that several European and North American countries were found to be high on individualism and low on power distance whereas several Latin American and Asian countries were found to be low on individualism and high on power distance (Hofstede, 1980). A strong European influence can be found among certain South African cultures.

The possibility of cultural differences regarding childhood and adolescent fears was explored in 1200 American, Australian, Chinese and Nigerian children and adolescents aged between 7 to 17 years by Ollendick et al. (1996). A positive association was found between over-controlled or

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internalised problems such as fear and anxiety and cultural practices such as self control, social inhibition and compliance with social norms in other words high power distance and low individualism. It can be deduced that if fear is significantly influenced by cultural or socialisation variables, differences should be apparent between countries such as North America, Australia and England and the collectivist cultures such as those found in Africa or China.

As previously reported, studies which were conducted with samples from Western countries resulted in similar findings. It was proposed, based on cultural differences, that more fears as well as higher levels of fears could be revealed by children and adolescents from Non-Western cultures in comparison with their Western counterparts (Dong et al., 1994; Ollendick et al., 1996).

Dong et al. (1994) conducted a study exploring the fears of 825 Chinese children and adolescents between the ages of 7 and 17 years and their relation to anxiety and depression. This was accomplished by means of the FSSC-R, Revised Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale (RCMAS) and the Children Depression Inventory (CDI). The Chinese children were of special interest because of the marked cultural difference (Lou, Lew, Hau, Cheung, & Berndt, 1990) and educational practices (Chen & Stevenson, 1989). It was found that, contrary to previous published reports where fear scores decrease with age, the pattern of fear was found to differ due to heightened levels of socio-evaluative fears especially between the ages of 11 and 13 and to lesser degree between the ages of 7 and 10. Due to their emphasis on performance, they scored particulary high on the factor of fear of failure. Although the intensity and total number of fears decreased over one year, it was still more for the 11 to 13 age group, who revealed more failure and criticism-related fears (socio-evaluative fears). The most common fears were related to death and danger, but fears of a socio-evaluative nature were also present for the Chinese participants. Subsequently a developmental-cultural hypothesis was suggested to account for the findings (Dong et al., 1995). The above points out the fact that cultures which stress inhibition, emotional restraint and obedience can contribute to an increase in the level of fearfulness.

The structure of children's fears which is derived through factor analytical procedures was also found to differ between cultures. A 5-factor structure of fear; fear of failure and criticism, fear of the unknown, fear of minor injury and small animals, fear of danger and death and medical fears was reported in studies of Caucasian American children in general (King et al., 1989; Ollendick et al., 1991) whereas recently a 3-factor structure (Factor 1 - General fears, fears of death, danger and small animals; Factor 2- Fear of the unknown and things that crawl; Factor 3- Medical fears) was

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reported for African American children (Neal et al., 1993). The absence of school fears was the most notable difference. The absence of the fear of embarrassment factor for the African American children was of little concern largely due to the fact that it was the weakest factor for the white children. In a study by Shore and Rapport (1998), a 7-factor solution was the best conceptual fit for the data. The seven factors were: danger and death, fear of the unknown, worries, anticipatory social, animals, averse social and social conformity, the first three factors being identical or conceptually similar to those previously reported. The analysis comprising the non specific and diffuse items concerning everyday worries yielded the fourth factor. The last three factors all involved distinct types of social fear. Factor 5 and 6 were conceptually similar to the factor of fear of failure and criticism from previous studies of the FSSC-R. The item content of factor 7 reflected children's concerns or fears about social aspects and conformity. As can be seen, the first 6 factors were similar to the described factors in previous research regarding the FSSC-R, whereas the last factor, factor 7, was unique.

In a study by Elbedour et al.(1997) developmental and cultural perspectives were explored by means of a comparison of fears among 430 Israeli Jewish and 435 Israeli Bedouin children. The Israeli Jewish children are encouraged to become independent as well as to have relationships outside the family context similar to Western children. The Israeli Bedouin children are Moslems and are brought up in an environment where the elders are still of monumental importance. They have much closer relationships with their families. The Bedouin children reported higher levels of fear and were frightened by a broader variety of stimuli and conditions than the Jewish Israeli children. The results of this study demonstrates the interaction effect culture has on children's fears and anxieties as well as how the environment in which a child grows up can mould the child. The expression of fears and anxieties during childhood and adolescence do differ to a greater or lesser degree, depending on the cultural context in which a child grows up. The fears reported by Jewish children were quite similar in intensity and pattern to those reported by children of Western societies. Gender differences were apparent, with girls reporting higher levels of fear than boys.

In a recent study by Ingman et al. (1999) the cross-cultural aspects of fears in 852 African children and adolescents were explored. The aim was to compare the level and type of fear in 551 Nigerian and 310 Kenyan children and adolescents with regard to the scores on the adapted FSSC-R which was more appropriate for a sample of Israeli children. Kenya, because it is more influenced by western settlers than Nigeria, more resembles a western society than Nigeria does. It was found that Nigerian children reported higher levels of fear than Kenyan children. The Nigerian children

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expressed higher levels of fear on all the factors except for the factor of danger and death. It is noteworthy to mention that the fear scores for both Nigeria and Kenya were higher than those found in the United states, Great Britain, Australia and China (Ollendick et al., 1989, 1991, 1996) suggesting that Nigeria and Kenya could share a possible denominator. It is however possible that the difference could be accounted to the difference in social conditions between Western and African countries. Another important aspect to take note of is that there were no significant effects found for the fear of danger and death, indicating that the level of fear for these events does not change across country, religion or age groups.

According to the results of a study on the fears of African American children, Neal et al. (1993) found that many fears transcend race and culture. However the limitations of the study, namely, religion and class, should be taken into consideration.

In a cross-cultural study by Ollendick et al. (1996), the fears in 300 American, Australian, Chinese and Nigerian children and adolescents, in total 1200 participants, were examined. These children and adolescents were compared in the dimensions of number, content, pattern and level of fears. It was hypothesised on the basis of cultural differences that the level of fear would be the highest for the Nigerian participants in comparison with the American and Australian participants but not with the Chinese participants. It was also predicted that boys would reveal a lower level of fear and that there would be an age-related decline in fear. The results indicate that the highest level of fear was found in Nigerian children followed by Chinese children who in turn had higher levels of fear than Australian and American children, who did not differ from one another. Differences in the findings suggest that cultural aspects influence the expression of fear among children. Some of these findings were that girls reported more fears than boys but only in America, China and Australia. In Nigeria boys and girls were found to display similar fears. It was also reported that younger children displayed more fears and higher levels of fear but this was only true for American and Australian youth. The Chinese children's differences were consistent with those reported by Dong et al. (1994). The Nigerian participants reported no age related declines. The Nigerian and Chinese participants revealed more socio-evaluative fear and safety related fears than their American and Australian counterparts whereas the most common fears reported were related to death and anger. Some were country specific. The results were interpreted in the applicable cultural context, suggesting that certain cultures can serve to increase the level of fear.

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In another study by Shore and Rapport (1998) the results indicate that culture may mediate the expression of fears. The ethno-cultural variations in 385 children's fearfulness in Hawai were compared by means of the Revised Fear Survey Schedule for Children (FSSC-HI). The results indicated differences among the Caucasian children and children of Asian, Filipino and Hawaian backgrounds with the Caucasian children scoring significantly lower in fear prevalence and intensity. The Caucasian children had the lowest level of fear on all the factors. The results coincide with the findings of Neal et al. (1993) that ethno-cultural factors can affect the underlying dimensions of children's fearfulness. This suggests that beliefs and attitudes concerning socialisation and conformity are conveyed to children by specific child rearing practices specific to a particular ethno-cultural group. In brief, one could say that cultural aspects do differ and thus contribute to the differences in the expressions of fear. The fear content was found to be similar to the findings of previous reports suggesting that the most troubling fears of children are invariant across age, gender and cultural background.

Showing fear is frowned upon, especially in contemporary Western culture. To be brave is what is striven for, especially for boys, and parents express concern about children who are unusually fearful. This phenomenon is not universal though.

The culture and structure of children's fears were explored in on early study by Tikalsky and Wallace (1988). Two samples each consisting of 92 children between the ages of 8 and 10, were drawn. The measuring instrument in their study was the 81-item Louisville Fear Survey for Children which is designed for children between the ages of 4 and 18. The aim of their study was to further explore the effect culture has on the dimensions of children's fears as well as the strength and nature of such dimensions. Navajo children tended to display more unrealistic fears than Anglo children. The explanation given for this phenomenon was that the children learn to fear different things and that fear has different meanings for the Navajo and Anglo children. For Anglo children to be fearful is not seen as desirable. On the other hand for the Navajo children expressing a lot of fears is seen as a sign of perceptiveness. Thus the number of fears tends to be exaggerated for Navajo children and tends to be denied for Anglo children. What the results of this study suggest is that fear frequencies may be partly a function of culture.

What does become apparent is that to a certain degree a "culture of childhood" (Yamamoto, Soliman, Pearson & Davies, pg 861, 1987) does exist, meaning that children in whatever cultural context they grow up in, share perceptions and experiences of more or less upsetting life events.

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This statement is supported by the finding that the content of fear is similar across countries (Neal et al., 1993; Shore & Rapport; 1998). Yamamoto et al. (1987) also noted a trend where the closest associations were found to arise from Anglo-Saxon roots, urbanisation and industrialisation. This supports the findings that the levels of fears were similar among children from America, Australia and Great Britain, in other words, westernised countries with similar cultural values and that the level of fear was higher in children from countries such as China, Nigeria and Kenya (Ingman et al., 1999; King et al., 1992; Ollendick et al., 1989, 1991, 1996). However, it is important to bear in mind that although there are similarities across cultures in the content of fears, the differences in level, number as well as content of fears should not be overlooked.

The fears of over 3000 children and adolescents between the ages of 8 and 16 were examined by means of the FSSC-R in a cross-sectional Australian study by King et al. (1989). The results indicated an age-related decline in fears with girls expressing more fears than boys. The latter finding has, however, been challenged because girls and boys may have reported their fears according to sex role expectations rather than revealing genuine differences (Graziano et al., 1979). Another finding was that the most common fears reported were similar to those reported by American adolescents and children (Ollendick et al., 1985). The geographical location and its influence on fears, was also explored, with children living in urban areas reporting a slightly greater number of fears than rural children (King et al., 1989). This study was compared with the study with adolescents and children from the United States of America (Ollendick et al., 1985). It was found that the fears of the children and adolescents from both countries seemed remarkably similar, qualitatively and quantitatively, where the fear of danger and death seemed predominant. The reason for the similarity could be due to similar conditions, namely, similar values, culture and the resemblance that both are westernised as well as English speaking countries.

In a study by Ollendick et al. (1995), it was found that the differences in content, number and intensity of fears reported between girls and boys were parallel to what previous studies have found including those in Australia, China, Great Britain and the United States (Dong et al., 1994; Ollendick et al., 1989, 1991). This result, showing that girls report more fears than boys, was obtained despite differences in the cultural and socialisation influences. It can, however, be said that cultural and development factors do influence the observed gender differences because the expression of socio-evaluative fears was more prominent in Chinese boys than in boys from western countries. The limitation of the study lies in the self-report nature.

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Similar results between the United States and Australia such as acceptable internal consistency, reliability and validity as well as a stable factorial structure across samples and nationalities have been found (Ollendick et al., 1989). The reason for this is that to a large extent the children from these countries share a common cultural heritage.

It appears as if expanded research results are still necessary for the clarification of the role of cultural variables in the expression of childhood fears.

For the purpose of the present study, culture is defined in terms of the main representative cultural communities present in the Stellenbosch area. These are: black, white and coloured South African children.

2.5. GENDER

According to Gullone (1996), differences regarding fear content and gender have been less well-researched than age and when they have been researched, little clarity has ensued. Various content differences have been reported. To name a few; for the girls these constitute being more afraid of the dark, strange sights, sounds, objects or persons, being kidnapped, robbed or killed, snakes, dirt and animals. The boys, on the other hand, were reported to be more afraid of bodily injury, school, failure, nightmares, harm and imaginary creatures (Bamber, 1974; Jerslid & Holmes, 1935a; Lapouse & Monk, 1959).

With regard to the fear content, gender differences were found by Lapouse and Monk (1959) though no difference in the fear content was found by Pratt (1945). Regarding the intensity of fear, differences were found between boys and girls, with girls expressing more intense fears than the boys (Bamber, 1974; Scherer & Nakamura, 1968).

Studies have found that girls express overwhelmingly more fears than boys (Croake, 1969; Dong et al., 1994; Elbedour et al., 1997; Graziano et al., 1979; Ingman et al., 1997; King et al., 1989; Lapouse & Monk, 1959; Lambert, Knight, Taylor & Achenbach, 1996; Ollendick, 1983; Ollendick et al., 1985, 1991; Scherer & Nakamura, 1968; Slee & Cross, 1989; Spence & McCathie, 1993). A possible reason for the gender differences is that girls more readily express fears because it is more socially accepted for them to be fearful than it is for boys. Boys on the other hand will rather deny fears because for them it is less sociably acceptable to be fearful. Thus

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gender role expectations can play an important role in the expression of fears (Dong et al., 1994), the difference being that girls may be more willing to admit to fears than boys. The hypothesis then is that gender role expectations or orientations exert an influence. Ginsburg and Silverman (2000), went a step further and investigated this hypothesis. The relationship between self-reported masculinity and femininity (gender role orientation) as well as self-reported fears in children with anxiety disorders was examined. The findings revealed that masculinity was inversely (negatively) related to overall levels of fearfulness and specific fears (fear of failure and criticism, fear of the unknown and medical fears) on the 5 subscales. The same does not hold true for the girls where no link was found between femininity and fearfulness. The above suggest that masculinity may play a role in the development and or maintenance of fearfulness in children.

A contradiction to the above-mentioned are the findings of Martalas (1999). She conducted a South African study regarding the expressed fears of preschool children. Boys were found to have twice as many animal fears as girls. The study, however was limited in number of participants and the researcher warned against generalisations.

Some studies found no sex differences to be present (Maurer, 1965; Miller, Barrett, Hampe & Noble, 1971; Nalven, 1970; Van Eeden, 1989).

Females reported significantly more fears than males overall as well as reporting more than males in all three age categories in a study completed by Slee and Cross (1989). The effects of socialisation was proposed as a possible reason for the gender differences apparent.

Spence and McCathie (1993) also found that girls expressed more fears than boys, that the most frequently feared stimuli were the same for both boys and girls, remained relatively stable and were related mainly to fears of danger, death and physical injury.

In the African children there was a lack of gender differences present in the level of fear. This is in sharp contrast to the findings of other studies where girls consistently reported a greater fear intensity than boys (Ingman et al., 1999). A possible explanation for the lack of gender differences' being apparent was given, namely, that it was found that in Kenyan children sex segregation in peer groups occurs at a later age than in American children (Harkness & Super, 1985). This finding was further supported by the result of the study by Pela and Reynolds (1982) where no sex differences in anxiety for Nigerian children and adolescents were found. It is interesting to notice that gender

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differences or the lack thereof are consistent across distinct cultures. No gender differences were apparent for Nigerian boys and girls who revealed similar numbers and levels of fear which did not differ significantly (Ollendick et al., 1996). This lends further support to the above-mentioned.

In a study by Ollendick et al. (1985) the results showed that girls expressed quantitative and qualitative differences in the intensity and structure of their self-reported fears in comparison with the boys. Childhood fears are more prevalent among girls than boys. Girls reported an average of 13 fears and boys an average of 8 fears.

Ollendick et al. (1996) reported that girls expressed more fears as well as having a higher intensity (level) of fear than boys but this finding was restricted to children from America, Australia and China. The girls expressed a higher level of fear than the boys on all the five factors. In contrast with the consistent finding that girls express more fears than boys, was the lack of sex difference among boys and girls from Nigeria where they reported similar numbers as well as levels of fear. No gender differences were apparent on any of the five factors for the Nigerian youth.

Girls were not only found to report more fears than boys but their fears were also more intense and disabling. Boys reported similar fears but socio-evaluative fears were of the same intensity and frequency as the life-threatening fears of the girls. The socio-evaluative fears were more pronounced in Chinese boys, especially preadolescent boys, than boys from Western countries (Dong et al., 1994) where the socio-evaluative fears were also seen (Ollendick et al., 1995).

According to a study by Gullone and King (1997), the pattern of fear yielded gender differences on all of the five factors, with girls expressing more fears than boys. Age differences were apparent on four of the five factors, indicating a general decrease in fear over time.

Conditioning, modelling and instruction are postulated by Rachman (1977) to be the pathways of fear acquisition. The deduction from the above-mentioned is that it can be expected that parents do play a role in the fear acquisition of the latter two pathways, namely, modelling and instruction. Pickersgill, Valentine, Pincus and Foustok (1999) conducted a study to further explore the possibility. This was accomplished by correlating children's (girls') fears with the parents' fears and scores on authoritarianism. The results disclosed that independent effects are exerted on the child's fears by fathers' authoritarianism and mother's fearfulness. It is further suggested that greater behavioural over-control by fathers and the greater propensity of the mothers to

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communicate threatening information play a role in the girl's fearfulness as a product of mothers' fearfulness and fathers' authoritarianism (Pickersgill et al., 1999).

A possible explanation for the gender difference could be that traditional boys high in masculinity might report fewer fears and traditional girls high in femininity might report more fears. An explanation of this magnitude does, however, need more systematic investigation (Ollendick et al., 1995).

Traditional gender roles for females allow them to be more fearful than their male counterparts. Conformity to these gender roles can be influential in the fear levels in two ways; firstly, by forcing males to confront their fears and thus decreasing the actual fear due to a desensitisation process. Secondly, conformity can lead to underreporting of fear levels by men to protect their own self-image and or to avoid censure from others (Pierce & Kirkpatrick, 1992). They further investigated whether men lie on fear surveys. The results of the fear survey and the measured heart rate linked to the video presentation did not correspond, with the fear level being lower for the fear survey than the actual heart rate showed. The study does, however, mention that the heart rate data should be interpreted with caution. The study indicates a discrepancy of fear levels among men and women.

The fourth dimension of the Hofstede (1980) model on which cultures can be positioned is masculinity and femininity. The terminology of this dimension is explained as follows. Masculinity in a society is associated with men being supposed to be assertive, tough and prioritising material success. The women, on the other hand, are supposedly more tender, modest and worried about the quality of life. The aspects of supposedly being modest, tender and worried about quality of life applies to both men and women in a society which stands for femininity.

The dimension of masculinity and femininity has implications with the gender roles of a country or culture, bearing in mind that gender refers to the distinction between men and women. Societal differences between men and women are society specific whereas biological differences between the two are universal (Hofstede 1980).

Research done by Hofstede (1991, 2000) indicates that South Africa as a country falls in the Masculinity dimension. The societal norm is towards inequality between parental roles. The father is tough and the mother is less tough, supposedly dealing with feelings. The role model parents pose for their children is that boys should assert themselves, should fight back if attacked and

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should not cry. Girls, on the other hand, should strive to please and be pleasant, should not fight and are allowed to cry.

The aforesaid provides a point of reference from which one could extrapolate from a South African context to the specific cultures in this study.

For countries which are more masculine some norms are: men being the breadwinners, inequality between sexes, differences in higher education and mother having a weaker position in the family than father (Arrindell, 2000). In South Africa these norms are apparent to some extent but changes are occurring.

2.6. SOCIO-ECONOMIC CLASS

Socio-economic class is an important variable in the fears of children and adolescents. The reason for this statement is that children and adolescents from different social strata show differences in the content of the fears they are experiencing (Fonseca et al., 1994). Children from lower socio-economic homes endorse fears of items related to such things as violence, rats, and cockroaches, while children from higher socio-economic homes endorse fears of stimuli such as heights, accidents, dangerous animals and poisonous insects, tending to use more generic categories in place of specific animals (Angelino et al., 1956; Fonseca et al., 1994; Graziano et al., 1979; Nalven, 1970).

According to Jerslid and Holmes (1935b), children from lower socio-economic homes endorsed fears of a supernatural and remote nature as well as of animals. The children from higher socio-economic homes endorsed fears of danger and of noises.

Graziano et al., (1979) found that the fear content among socio-economic class varies. Lower socio-economic-level children also tend to list specific fears whereas children at higher socio-economic-level list more global fears. It can also be said when looking at the fears of lower socio-economic-level children, that they feel more hostile to their immediate environment than higher socio-economic-level children. This however needs to undergo further research and testing.

The possibility does exist, however, that the differences in fear content among different socio-economic strata may be a function of quite different environmental experiences (Ollendick et al.,

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1985). In Nalven's (1970) study it was suggested that the lower socio-economic-level children may perceive their immediate environment as more hostile than the higher socio-economic-level children. Further explanations were that differences in education and understanding could account for the findings. This refers to the findings in Nalven's (1970) study of lower socio-economic class, where children tended to list specific animal fears rather than generic groupings like the higher socio-economic scale children.

The only difference which was found for children in an Indian socio-cultural setting was in the frequency (number) of fear responses. A universe relationship was found between the number of fears reported by the children and their socio-economic level. No content discrepancies were found in the expression of fear. Possible explanations for this were differences in parental roles in the development of fears in children and the fact that the children all attend the same school irrespective of socio-economic status, therefore being exposed to the same environment (Sidana, 1975).

It has been found that fears of children are more intense (level) and frequent (number) in children of lower socio-economic status than children from higher socio-economic status (Neal et al., 1993; Ollendick, 1983; Ollendick et al., 1985, 1989, 1991). The basic conclusion is that lower socio-economic children tend to have more fears than higher socio-economic children (Croake, 1969). Lapouse and Monk (1959) found that the number of fears expressed by black and poorer children were higher.

This is specifically true for the fears related to danger, death and safety. The difference being observed as a result of to socio-economic class points to a socially determined component with regard to content and level of fear.

In a study by Lambert et al. (1996) teachers rated lower socio-economic-level children as having significantly more problems than higher socio-economic-level children.

It is important to realise that socio-economic status and place of residence may be confounded in certain studies (Fonseca et al., 1994).

The development of a child can be affected directly or indirectly by socio-economic class. Directly, it can cause a constraint on availability and access of physical facilities as well as a restriction of opportunities (Parameshwaran, 1964). The parents' personalities and consequently their attitudes

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and relationship with the child can be influenced indirectly (Havinghurst quoted in Sidana, 1975; McGuire, 1952). Various aspects of the personality can also be influenced by SES (Harrower, 1934; Neff, 1938).

In the present study the sample was divided into 4 socio-economic levels according to the zone in which the school attended by the children was situated. The greater Stellenbosch area was divided into these zones by a study involving the Department of Sociology of the University of Stellenbosch (1995). The monthly income per household was also taken into consideration. For the purpose of this study the socio-economic levels are; low, low to medium, medium and medium to high.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. PARTICIPANTS

The sample consisted of 404 middle childhood children attending four regular schools in the Stellenbosch area. The children were attending Grade 3 to 7 and were aged between 8 and 13 years. The cut-off point for the age group was determined by the year in which they were born, implying that children who were born between the 1 January 1987 and 31 December 1992 met the age requirements provided that they were attending Grade 3 to 7.

To enhance the generaliseability and representativeness of the sample, the schools were selected from various socio-economic areas. The sample is thus proportionally representative of middle childhood South African children in 3 different cultures in the Stellenbosch area.

The participants included 213 boys and 191 girls participants. The different cultural groups were represented in the following way: 96 black South African children (45 boys and 51 girls), 109 white South African (64 boys and 45 girls) and 199 coloured South African children (104 boys and 95 girls).

The sample was divided into 4 socio-economic levels: low (87 children), low to medium (132 children), medium (95 children) and medium to high (90 children). These categorisations were done according to the zones which the greater Stellenbosch area was divided into by a study of the Sociology Department of the University of Stellenbosch (1995), as well as the monthly income per household as determined by the same study. The socio-economic status was calculated according to

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information concerning the SES of the residents of the neighbourhoods in which the children lived (Departement Sosiologie, 1995).

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

The study was cross-sectional in nature, obtaining normative data and was conducted in English and Afrikaans, as they are the official languages of instruction in South African schools. The research was divided into three stages: administration and permission, data collection and data analysis.

During the first stage consent was obtained from all the relevant parties and the participants were recruited. Furthermore research assistants (An honours qualification in Psychology was a prerequisite as well as cross-cultural sensitivity and experience with children) were selected and trained to assist the researcher.

The second stage comprised of data collection. The data was collected mainly in a quantitative manner, no manipulation occurred and the data was collected at one point in time only. The participants completed three questionnaires. These consisted of the Biographical questionnaire, the FOM and the FSSC-R and were administered in exactly the same order as they are mentioned.

During the third stage data was analysed by using the statistical package for social science (SPSS, George & Mallery, 1999).

3.3. MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The measuring instruments are described in order of application as used in the research.

3.3. 1. Biographical Questionnaire

Data concerning culture, gender and SES with regard to the zones in which the schools attended by the respective participants were situated, was collected by means of the Biographical questionnaire. Thus, the independent variables were obtained through the Biographical questionnaire. The use of research assistants previously trained and supervised by the researcher, ensured clarity. The researcher was available at all times. The questionnaire was very clear and easily administered. The

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Biographical questionnaire was administered before the FOM and the FSSC-R to each participant, who completed the questionnaire by themselves.

3.3.2. Free option method (FOM)

The FOM, or as otherwise known as the Fear List Technique, is an open-ended question technique entailing children listing their fears without limiting their options (Angelino et al., 1956; Muris et al., 1997a, 1997b, 2000a; Nalven, 1970).

The reason why the FOM is very applicable is because it asks children what they fear most without limiting their options. Another reason why the FOM is used is because it aids in obtaining a better, broader understanding of children's fears. Numerous studies have pointed out that information should be gathered by various sources in order to obtain a comprehensive picture (Fonseca et al., 1994). The FOM can also be used in order to compensate for the shortcomings of the FSSC-R. This does not imply that the FSSC-R is not adequate. What is being said is that after careful study of the FSSC-R, which is a good self-report instrument, certain issues have emerged which need to be addressed by a different approach, which the FOM supplies.

Some 1100 children aged 9 to 18 were asked by their teacher to list their fears and worries in one of the earlier studies by Angelino et al. (1956). The children were not interviewed and the lists were not structured in any way. These lists were classified into 10 categories: safety, school, natural phenomena, animals, health, economic and political, personal appearance, social relations, personal conduct and the supernatural. The methodology and categories were used in a later study by Nalven (1970), where 257 children of the fifth and sixth grade were involved, in exactly the same manner.

In a study by Maurer (1965), where 130 children ranging from 5 to 14 years were involved, questions were used in order to gather knowledge regarding what children fear. They were asked the following questions: " What are the things to be afraid of? And what else? Anything else?" The answers were recorded and transcribed verbatim. The children were given no clues, because of the danger that children could interpret these as critical and consequently answer defensively. The same procedure was applied by Derevensky (1979) to 133 children between the ages of 7 to 19 and the categories of research were modified from the research by Maurer (1965). The categories were: animals, people, dark, spook, natural hazards, machinery, death, injury and miscellaneous.

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The sample in a study by Muris et al. (1997a) consisted of 129 children with the ages ranging between 9 and 13. The FOM was used in order to examine the rank orders and characteristics of childhood fears. The interview began with the question: "What do you fear most?". The details regarding the intensity of the fears were obtained by the question: "How much do you fear ...?" with 1 = not at all and 10 = very much. For the level of interference the question: "How much do you worry about... ?" 1 = not at all, 10 = very much was asked and for the reaction to the feared stimuli the question "how do you react when you are confronted with...?" was asked. The physical symptoms, negative thoughts and avoidance behaviour were rated in terms of 0 = absent and 1 = present. It was found in this study that the fear rank order was determined by the instruments being used.

In a study by Muris et al. (1997b) where what children fear most often was explored, the 394 children aged 7 to 12 were asked: "What do you fear most often?" and were then instructed to write it down on a blank page. This was added to the FSSC-R, which was administered before they received the FOM. The results indicated that the order of the method or instruments applied could have influenced the fear rank order, due to the carry-over effect.

Criticism by Graziano et al. (1979) regarding the fear list techniques was that it is not possible to determine either the completeness or intensity of the listed fears. The latter criticism was addressed in the present study by asking the children not only to list their fears, but also to indicate how much they fear them (none, some, a lot).

In the various studies mentioned here, whether their methodology entailed an interview or a fear listing technique, the common denominator shared by both was the fact that both were unstructured. This was the primary reason for including the FOM. The children were free to answer of their own accord.

The cognitive and verbal ability of the child needs to be taken into consideration when contemplating using this method, given the cognitively demanding nature of this method. Thus, it is not surprising that this technique has generally been applied to samples older than eight years (King et al., 1988; Ollendick & Hersen, 1984).

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For the purpose of this study the content of fears was derived from the fears rated "a lot" with the highest frequency. The number of fears was the number of items endorsed "a lot" for each individual and was derived form frequency tables and frequencies.

3.3.3. The Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

A fear survey schedule for children (FSSC) was developed by Scherer and Nakamura (1968) upon modification of Wolpe and Lang's (1964) adult fear schedule, with the cognitive and verbal abilities of a young child in mind, in order to obtain a measure of fear. They attempted to develop a fear scale for children for the assessment of fear in which the items are grouped into sub-scales which were selected on a conceptual basis, similar to that of the Wolpe Lang (1964) Fear Survey Scale. An 8-factor solution was found to be most appropriate and consisted of the following: Fear of failure and criticism, major fears, minor fears-travel, medical fears, fear of death, fear of the dark, home-school fears and miscellaneous fears. Each of the 80 items of the FSSC were rated on a 5-point scale of "none", "a little", "some", "much" and "very much". The FSSC was administered by Scherer and Nakamura (1968) to children of ages 9 to12, thus the FSSC was appropriately used for the above mentioned ages. No age differences were found, but gender differences were with girls scoring higher on intensity and prevalence than boys.

A wide variety of procedures have been used in the past to investigate children's fears, ranging from observing children in their natural environment (Jerslid & Holmes, 1935a), interviewing the children's parents or the children themselves (Nalven, 1970; Pratt, 1945), to fear survey schedules. The fear survey schedules, however, have been predominantly incorporated in normative fear research because the scales have several advantages (Lane & Gullone, 1999). The present study has made use of the FSSC-R of Ollendick (1983) in order to allow valid cross-national comparisons with the already existing body of research regarding the FSSC-R.

In 1983, Ollendick revised the FSSC which is a self-report instrument, to enhance the validity and reliability with younger children as well as with children who had intellectual disabilities. One of the differences was that the individual items were not rated on a 5-point scale anymore but on a 3-point scale (none=1, some=2 and a lot=3). The reason for the change was because of concern that young children might become confused with a 5-point scale. The scale became known as the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R), with specific items on the scale remaining

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unchanged. The age group for which the FSSC-R could be appropriately used is from 8 to 16. The categories in which the fear is measured is the same for the FSSC and the FSSC-R. These categories are school, home, social, physical, animal, travel, classic phobia and miscellaneous (Fonseca et al., 1994). For the FSSR-R a five-factor solution was mostly appropriate, which was derived from factor analysis and consists of the fear of failure and criticism, fear of the unknown, fear of injury and small animals, fear of danger and death and medical fears (Ollendick, 1983). Conceptually the five-factor structure bears a lot of resemblance to that of Scherer and Nakamura (1968). It has been shown that the factor structure is fairly robust across gender, age and nationality (Ollendick et al., 1989).

The problem with the fear survey schedule for children from Scherer and Nakamura (1968) was that it was lacking normative data, test-retest reliability and information about its construct validity (Ollendick, 1983).

In a study by Ollendick (1983) the reliability and validity of the revised fear survey schedule for children was explored. It was found that the FSSC-R possessed a high internal consistency, high test-retest reliability as well as having as acceptable stability over time. It was also found to discriminate adequately between normal and clinical samples as well as having acceptable convergent and discriminant validity and a meaningful factor structure.

Over the years further research using the FSSC-R has been conducted either to determine its psychometric property or for fear assessment purposes.

The psychometric properties include internal consistency test-retest reliability and construct validity (Gullone & King, 1992; Ollendick et al., 1985, 1989). In a study by Ollendick et al. (1996) high internal consistency estimates have been found for American (α= 0.95), Australian (α= 0,96), Chinese (α= 0,96) and Nigerian (α= 0,95) children and adolescents. The test-retest reliability estimates have been demonstrated across varying intervals of time. It has been demonstrated that when the scores are elevated, they are associated with heightened levels of anxiety and depression (Dong et al., 1994; Ollendick et al., 1991) and with external locus of control orientations and low self-concept (Ollendick, 1983). It was found useful in identifying fears in normal children as well as differentiating among anxiety disorders in children (Ollendick et al., 1989). The scores of the FSSC-R were shown to be inversely (negatively) related to self-concept as well as internal locus of control but directly (positively) related to trait anxiety (Ollendick, 1983). It has been shown to be a

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useful research instrument in countries very different from the one it was originally developed for (Fonseca et al., 1994), and is thus cross-culturally suitable.

The advantages of self-report instruments such as the FSSC-R are that they are flexible, cheaper, time-effective, can cover a large number of items, provide information on the intensity of fears and can be administered to a large range of ages (Fonseca et al., 1994) and are convenient (Lane & Gullone, 1999). They may also be useful in helping to assess a child's level of fear and anxiety. Self-report ranking scales are also important in that they can be employed as therapy outcome measures as well as epidemological instruments (Muris et al., 1998a). The instrument can also be objectively scored, minimising any possible influence by assessor bias (Lane & Gullone, 1999).

It is imperative to note, however, that the item content of the FSSC-R has not been changed since it was originally developed by Scherer and Nakamura (1968). Consequently the content validity needs to be revised if further normative studies are to provide an accurate and comprehensive account of children's fears (Gullone & King, 1992). In a study by Gullone and King (1992), the aforementioned issues were addressed by testing a second revision of the FSSC-R. The issues were addressed by including more recently occuring and socially significant events such as nuclear war and AIDS, which could be likely foci of children's fears. The three-point scale was changed as well, from 1= not scared to 3= very scared. The second revision of the FSSC-R proved to have sound psychometric properties as well as being able to investigate normative fear changes from childhood to the end of adolescence (Burnham & Gullone, 1997).

McCathie and Spence (1991) investigated criticism concerning the validity of the data yielded by the FSSC-R. They administered Ollendick's (1983) FSSC-R to children between the ages of 7 and 13 with standard instructions as well as administering an adapted version of the FSSC-R (Fear Frequency and Avoidance Fear Survey Schedule, FFASSC) to the same students. The findings indicated that no significant differences were reported between the FSSC-R and FFASSC responses. McCathie and Spence (1991) argued that the children tended to respond to the fear questionnaire items according to their affective responses to the image or thought of the stimulus situation instead of giving their actual fear responses.

Further criticism regarding the FSSC-R is that it is mundane and that everyday sort of fears are overshadowed and undershaded; that self-report information provides a limited view of fearfulness and that the data reported is limited to children's reports of fear in response to a specific event

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which is often unlikely to occur. Thus it tends to reflect a negative affective response to the thought of the occurrence of specific events and is not situation specific, addressing more global states of fear and anxiety (King et al., 1989; McCathy & Spence, 1991; Murdoch, James, Reynolds & Dunbar, 1994). With regard to the criticism that children are reflecting only their response to the thought of occurrence of a specific event, one has to realise that the fear rank orders may reflect only the fears that children have the most negative attitude to. A way in which a solution for this problem can be found is to ask the children what they fear most without limiting their options.

The results of a study by Muris et al. (1997b) demonstrated that fear rank orders depend on the instrument being used and results further showed that the order in which the self-report instruments are used, for example the FOM and FSSC-R can also influence the fear ranking order due to the carry-over effect. This would make them lacking in discriminant validity (Muris et al., 1998b).

In a study by Muris et al. (1998a), it was found that although the FSSC-R has proven to be successful in assessing general fearfulness in children and that it can be used to measure the efficacy of a treatment, it seems to be less useful in diagnostic processes where it is required to differentiate among various anxiety disorder subtypes in children.

The FSSC-R is an unidimensional instrument (Muris et al., 1999).

The multi-method assessment strategy by means of the FOM and FSSC-R was chosen for this study because of the wide range of targets of change during childhood. It is appropriate to fear assessment, being empirically validated and developmentally sensitive. This is in accord with the requirement for child behavioural assessment as stipulated by Ollendick and Hersen (1984).

The content of fears, for the present study, was determined by the fears which were rated "a lot" with the highest frequency. The number of fears referred to the number of items which were endorsed "a lot" by an individual. The level of fear was determined by the sum of the responses to the 80 items on the FSSC-R and the pattern of fear was derived from the factor scale scores.

The biographical questionnaire was applied first and completed by the children themselves. The data collected was used to look at, as well as to investigate the emerging patterns. The FOM was administered after the biographical questionnaire and before the FSSC-R in order to prevent the carry-over effect and thus contamination which could occur if the FSSC-R was administered before

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the FOM (Muris et al., 1997b). The administering method used was similar to the method used by Muris et al. (1997b). The children had to write down what they feared and how much they feared the object on a scale of "none", "some" and "a lot". The weight of these options was the same as those for the FSSC-R namely; none = 1, some = 2 and a lot = 3. The reason for this was to increase the ability to accurately compare the results of the fears experienced by the children according to the two measuring instruments. The statistical analyses with regard to content and number were the same for both the FOM and FSSC-R, for the same reason as mentioned above. The FSSC-R was administered at the end and the evaluation method used resembled that of Ollendick (1983).

3.4. PROCEDURE

The Western Cape Education Department was approached with the request to grant permission to conduct the study (Addendum A). Once permission was granted by the Western Cape Education Department, as well as the respective principals, the researched commenced.

The schools where the testing took place were selected according to cultural availability. In each school a period was allocated by the principals as the time-slot during which the questionnaires could be administered.

The procedure applied to the FOM can be supported by the fact that it was previously used by several researchers (Angelino et al., 1956; Bauer, 1976; Derevensky, 1979; Draper & James, 1985; Muris et al., 1997a, 1997b, 2000). The method which was applied with respect to the FSSC-R was also previously applied by a number researchers (Elbedour et al., 1997; Ingman et al., 1999).

The researcher familiarised herself with the surroundings prior to testing taking place. The Biographical questionnaire was applied first and was completed by the children themselves. The information gathered was used to look at and investigate the patterns which emerged as well as to determine the independent variables. Standard test instructions were used at each school during testing and no time limited was set.

The FOM was administered thereafter and before the FSSC-R to prevent contamination due to a possible carry-over effect (Muris et al., 1997b). The FOM method required the children to write down what they feared most in the provided blank space as well as to indicate to what extent they

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feared the object or thought. The options were "none", "some" and "a lot", being the same as for the FSSC-R.

The FSSC-R was administered last and consisted of 80 items, where the children had to indicate how much they feared the specific item according to the same scale as the FOM. The subjects were asked to read each item carefully along with researcher and to mark with an X the box which best described how much fear they experienced with regard to the specific item. The children were also informed that there were no right or wrong answers. Everything possible was done to ensure that each question was clearly understood. The researcher was present during the entire time of testing, providing assistance and ensuring independent as well as confidential responses. The language of instruction of the specific questionnaires depended on the language of instruction in the specific classroom.

Altogether 129 questionnaires were discarded (58 boys and 71 girls); 56 of the Black South African children (20 boys and 36 girls), 18 of the white South African children (10 boys and 8 girls) and 55 of the coloured South African children (28 boys and 27 girls). The above was mainly due to problems arising at one primary school where the questionnaires were administered in English which was not the home language but the language of instruction in the classrooms. The level of language proficiency was not the same as initially assumed by the researcher and a large number of questionnaires had to be discarded.

Prior to testing confidentiality was explained and guaranteed. The children were motivated as well, by being told what an enormous role they were playing and what a great help they were. The researcher tried to put the test users at ease by being open and friendly as well as providing information about the test and the use thereof. Optimal physical conditions were also aimed at by ensuring good lighting, sufficient room to be comfortable while answering the questionnaires and providing adequate testing materials. These are guidelines to good testing suggested by Brown (1983). Standard test instructions were used at each school during testing.

The time of testing varied between 30 minutes and 1 hour and a half. Once data collection was completed the questionnaires were classified into valid and invalid categories. The questionnaires were discarded if they were not completed properly.

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The content of the participants fears derived from the FOM were grouped into categories according to their own verbatim replies. The majority of the categories originated from previous research, used as guidelines (Bauer, 1976; Derenvensky, 1979; Draper & James, 1985; Jerslid & Holmes, 1935a; Maurer, 1965). These categories are listed in Tables 14 to 17.

One alteration was made to the FSSC-R namely item 73 was changed to a foreign country as was in accordance with previous research (Dong et al., 1994, 1995; Olendick et al., 1995, 1996).

Testing took place in four primary schools during the third school term. One school granted permission for the testing to be completed early in the fourth term.

3.5. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The **content** of fears, especially the ten most common fears were derived from the fears rated "a lot" with the highest frequency. This held true for both the FOM and the FSSC-R.

The **number** of fears (i.e., the number of items endorsed "a lot" for each individual) for the FOM was derived from frequency tables and frequencies. A factorial ANOVA was conducted on the FSSC-R to determine if any significant differences with regard to the total number of fears were apparent.

The FOM was only used to obtain the content and number of fears experienced. Previous research from Muris et al. (1997a, 1997b) was used as a guideline for this study. Due to the difference in structure of the FOM and FSSC-R, different statistical analyses were done. For the FSSC-R previous research by Ollendick (1983) was used as a guideline in this study.

A factorial ANOVA was conducted on the FSSC-R to explore whether any significant differences were apparent with respect to the **level** of fear, the sum of the responses to the 80 items.

A factorial MANOVA was conducted on the five-factor scale scores to determine if significant differences with respect to the **pattern** of fear, the sum of responses to the items contained on each of the five factors, were apparent. The content of fear was determined by the 10 most common fears of each culture (the sum of the responses to the items contained on each of the five factors).

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All the above-mentioned analyses were done by using the statistical package for social science (SPSS, George & Mallery, 1999).

4. RESULTS

Neither culture nor gender was equally represented among the participants. This was taken into consideration and provision was made accordingly.

The results were reported as follows: Each independent variable was mentioned with respect to each dependent variable.

The order in which the independent variables were mentioned were: culture, gender and SES. The dependent variables were reported as follows: content, number, level and pattern of fear. Culture was thus mentioned first with respect to the dependent variables: content number, level and pattern of fear. The results for gender regarding all the dependent variables followed.

The exception was with SES where only FSSC-R results for the number, level and pattern of fear were reported in exactly the same sequence.

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4.1. CULTURE AND THE CONTENT, NUMBER, LEVEL AND PATTERN OF FEAR

4.1.1. Description of the content of fears

4.1.1.1. Fear rank order based on the results of the Free Option method (FOM)

The ten most common fears for all the South African children, according to the results of the FOM are presented in Table 4. This fear rank order was determined by the number of subjects endorsing a particular fear.

Table 4
Fear Rank Order for All South African Children(N=404) Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Item	No. of subjects	Percentage of sample
(1) Snakes	184	45,54
(2) Predators	92	22,77
(3) Weapons	90	22,27
(4) Crime	57	14,11
(5) Death	55	13,61
(6) Gangs	51	12,62
(7) Spider	47	11,63
(8) Transport	44	10,89
(9) Dog	43	10,64
(10) Crocodile	34	8,42

The ten most common fears for the black South African children, according to the results of the FOM are presented in Table 5.

Table 5
Fear Rank Order for the Black South African children (n=96) Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Item	No. of subjects	Percentage of sample
(1) Snakes	58	60,42
(2) Predator	39	40,63
(3) Weapons	37	38,54
(4) Crocodile	22	22,92
(5) Gang	20	20,83
(6) Dog	18	18,75
(7) Lizard	16	16,67
Transport	16	16,67
(9) Insects	15	15,63
(10) Crime	14	14,58

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The fear rank order based on the FOM results for the white South African children is presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Fear Rank Order for the White South African Children (n=109) Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Item	No. of subjects	Percentage of sample
(1) Snakes	27	24,77
(2) Sharks	17	15,60
(3) Spider	14	12,84
(4) Crime	13	11,93
Transport	13	11,93
(6) Predator	10	9,17
(7) Thieves	9	8,26
Home alone	9	8,26
Death or dead people	9	8,26
Hooligans	9	8,26
Tests	9	8,26

In Table 7 the ten most common fears for the coloured South African children based on the FOM results are presented.

Table 7

Fear Rank Order for the Coloured South African Children (n=199) Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Item	No. of subjects	Percentage
(1) Snakes	99	49,75
(2) Weapons	53	26,63
(3) Predators	42	21,11
(4) Death or dead people	38	19,10
(5) Crime	30	15,08
(6) Gangs	27	13,57
(7) Ghosts	25	12,56
(8) Dog	22	11,06
(9) Spider	21	10,55
(10) Rats or mice	19	9,55

In Table 8 the number of children expressing no fear in each culture with respect to the FOM are reported.

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Table 8
Summary of the Children reporting no Fear at all for the Free Option Method (FOM)(n=12)

	Black South African children	White South African children	Coloured South African children
Boys	0	7	4
Girls	0	1	0
Total	0	8	4

In order to determine the differences apparent in the content of fears for all the cultures a comparison of the ten most common fears was done to determine how many similarities there were.

Upon comparison of Table 4 (overall), Table 5 (black South African children), Table 6 (white South African children) and Table 7 (coloured South African children) three matches were found. These were snakes, predators and crime.

Further comparison of the three cultural groups yielded the following matches were: The black and coloured South African children yielded five matches (snakes, weapons, predators, gangs, crime and dogs). The black and white South African children had four matches (snakes, predators, transport and crime). Five matches were found among the coloured and white South African children (snakes, predator, crime, death or dead people and spiders).

The percentages of endorsement varied from 45,54% for the first item to 8,24% for the tenth item for the overall results (see Table 4) 60,42% to 14,58% for the black South African children (see Table 5), 24,77% to 8,26% for the white South African children (see Table 6) and 49,75% to 9,55% for the coloured South African children (see Table 7). The black South African children had the highest percentage of endorsement followed by the coloured South African children, while the lowest percentage of endorsement was found among the white South African children.

The range of the percentage of endorsement was the longest for the black South African children (45,84%), followed fairly closely by the coloured South African children (40,20%) and the white South African children had the lowest range with 16,51%.

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A total of 12 children said they experienced no fears at all. Eight of those were from the white South African culture (7 boys and 1 girl) and four boys from the coloured South African culture. No children from the black South African culture reported to have no fears at all (see Table 8).

4.1.1.2. Fear rank order based on the FSSC-R

In Table 9 the ten most common fears derived from the results of the FSSC-R, for all the South African children is presented. The ten most common fears were determined by the number of subjects rating a particular fear "a lot".

Table 9
Fear Rank Order for all the South African Children (N=404) Based on the Results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Item	No. of subjects	Percentage of sample
(1) Not being able to breathe	285	70,54
(2) Being hit by a car	264	65,35
(3) Falling from high places	262	64,85
(4) Getting a shock from electricity	258	63,86
(5) Getting lost in a strange place	249	61,63
(6) Bombing attacks-being invaded	245	60,64
Germs or getting a serious illness	245	60,64
(8) Death or dead people	236	58,42
(9) A burglar breaking into our house	234	57,92
Fire - getting burned	234	57,92

Table 10 presents the ten most common fears for the black South African children.

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Table 10

Fear Rank Order for the Black South African Children (n=96) Based on the Results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Item	No. of subjects	Percentage of sample
(1) Bombing attacks - being invaded	81	84,38
(2) Getting a shock from electricity	77	80,21
(3) Guns	73	76,04
Not being able to breathe	73	76,04
(5) Death or dead people	72	75,00
Cemeteries	72	75,00
Ghosts or spooky things	72	75,00
(8) Snakes	71	73,96
(9) Germs or getting a serious illness	70	72,92
(10) Being hit by a car or truck	69	71,88

The fear rank order for the ten most common fears expressed by the white South African children are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Fear Rank Order for the White South African Children(n=109) Based on the Results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Item	No. of subjects	Percentage of sample Factor
(1) Not being able to breathe	71	65,14
(2) Falling from high places	61	55,96
(3) Being hit a car or truck	60	55,05
(4) A burglar breaking into our house	59	54,13
(5) Bombing attacks - being invaded	57	52,30
Failing a test	57	52,30
(7) Fire - getting burned	56	51,38
(8) Getting poor grades	54	49,54
Getting a shock from electricity	54	49,54
(10) Getting lost in a strange place	49	44,95

Table 12 indicates the ten most common fears for the coloured South African children.

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Table 12
Fear Rank Order for the Coloured South African Children (n=199) Based on the Results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Item	No. of subjects	Percentage of samples	Factor
(1) Falling from high places	149	74,87	
(2) Not being able to breathe	141	70,85	
(3) Getting lost in a strange place	137	68,84	
(4) Being hit by a car or truck	135	67,84	
(5) Getting a shock from electricity	127	63,82	
Germs or getting a serious illness	127	63,82	
(7) Bears or wolves	126	63,32	
(8) Death or dead people	124	62,31	
(9) Earthquakes	121	60,80	
(10) A burglar breaking into our house	119	59,80	

As can be seen when comparing Table 9 (overall), Table 10 (Black South African children), Table 11 (White South African children), Table 12 (Coloured South African children) there are three matches to be found among the fears experienced. These are the fear of not being able to breathe, being hit by a car or truck and getting a shock from electricity.

A further comparison can be done by comparing the items among the three cultural groups. The highest match was found between white and coloured South African children and the lowest match between black and white. Five matches were found when comparing the black and coloured South African children, four matches were found between the black and white South African children and six matches were found when comparing white and coloured South African children.

The five matches that were found upon comparing the black and coloured South African children were: getting a shock from electricity, not being able to breathe, death or dead people, germs or getting a serious illness and being hit by a car or truck. For the differences between white and black South African children the matches were: getting a shock from electricity, bombing attacks-being invaded, not being able to breathe and being hit by a car or truck. For the white and coloured South African children they were: not being able to breathe, falling from high places, being hit by a car or truck, a burglar breaking into our house, getting a shock from electricity and getting lost in a strange place.

The percentage of endorsement of the whole sample for the first item (not being able to breathe) was 70,54 % and for the tenth item (fire-getting burned) was 57,92%.

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The black South African children endorsed the first items with 84,38% and the tenth item with 71,88% (see Table 10). The percentage of endorsement for the white South African children for the first item was 65,14% and the last item of the ten most common fears 44,95% (see Table 11). The coloured South African children endorsed the first item with 74,87% and the tenth item with 59,80% (see Table 12).

From the above-mentioned percentages it can be seen that the endorsement was much higher for the group of black South African children followed by the coloured South African and lastly the white South African children. The range of endorsement was the longest for the white South African children(20,19%), followed by the coloured South African children (15,07%) and lastly black South African children (12,5%).

4.1.2. Description of the number of fears

4.1.2.1. The results regarding the FOM

The number of fears for each culture as well as all the South African children according to the FOM results is indicated in Table 13.

Table 13
Summary of the Number of Fears of the Three Cultures from the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Culture	Number of fears	% of total number of fears	n
All	1462	3,62	404
Black South African children	403	4,20	96
White South African children	275	2,52	109
Coloured South African children	784	3,94	199

The number of fears was the highest for the black South African children (M=4,20), followed by the coloured South African children (M=3,94) and lastly the white South African children (M=2,52). It is important to notice the difference between the black and coloured South African children in comparison to the white South African children. The overall sample showed an average of 3,62 fears.

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Table 14 provides a summary of the number of times a specific fear was mentioned by all the South African participants.

Table 14
Percentages Attributed to the Total Number of Fears for all the South African Children and Gender Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Categories	Fears: Boys no. (n=213)	% of total fears	Fears: Girls no. (n=191)	% of total fears	Total (N=404)	% of total fears
Wild animals	189	12,93	251	17,17	440	30,10
Domestic animals	28	1,92	53	3,63	81	5,55
Insects	33	2,26	69	4,72	102	6,98
Sea animals	20	1,37	24	1,64	44	3,01
Fantasy animals	6	0,41	2	0,14	8	0,55
Subtotal	276	18,89	399	27,30	675	46,19
Real people	56	3,83	54	3,70	110	7,53
Dark/Night	20	1,37	45	3,08	65	4,44
Natural phenomena	2	0,14	13	0,89	15	1,03
Medical	8	0,55	30	2,05	38	2,60
Fantasy people	19	1,30	33	2,26	52	3,56
School	20	1,37	17	1,16	37	2,53
Crime/Violence	113	7,73	171	11,70	284	19,43
Other	85	5,81	101	6,91	186	12,72
Total	**599**	**40,97**	**863**	**59,03**	**1462**	

A summary of the number of times a specific fear was mentioned by the black South African children and their gender is shown in Table 15.

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Table 15

Percentages Attributed to the Total Number of Fears for the Black South African Children and Gender Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Categories	Fears: Boys no. (n=45)	% of total fears	Fears: Girls no. (n=51)	% of total fears	Total (n=96)	% of total fears
Wild animals	65	16,13	92	22,83	157	38,96
Domestic animals	13	3,23	21	5,21	34	8,44
Insects	11	2,73	21	5,21	32	7,94
Sea animals	2	0,50	8	1,99	10	2,48
Fantasy animals	1	0,25	1	0,25	2	0,50
Subtotal	92	22,83	143	35,48	235	58,31
Real people	11	2,73	13	3,23	24	5,96
Dark/Night	0	0,00	0	0,00	0	0,00
Natural phenomena	2	0,50	2	0,50	4	1,00
Medical	3	0,74	10	2,48	13	3,22
Fantasy people	4	1,00	7	1,74	11	2,73
School	3	0,74	1	0,25	4	0,99
Crime/Violence	26	6,45	55	13,65	81	20,10
Other	11	2,73	20	4,96	31	7,69
Total	**152**	**37,72**	**251**	**62,28**	**403**	

Table 16 provides a summary of the number of times a specific fear was expressed by the white South African children and gender.

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Table 16

Percentages Attributed to the Total Number of Fears for the White South African Children and Gender Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Categories	Fears: Boys no. (n=64)	% of total fears	Fears: Girls no. (n=45)	% of total fears	Total (n=275)	% of total fears
Wild animals	24	8,73	35	12,73	59	21,45
Domestic animals	0	0,00	4	1,45	4	1,45
Insects	5	1,82	20	7,27	25	9,09
Sea animals	14	5,09	4	1,45	18	6,55
Fantasy animals	5	1,82	1	0,36	6	2,18
Subtotal	48	17,45	64	23,27	112	40,72
Real people	18	6,55	5	1,82	23	8,36
Dark/Night	6	2,18	16	5,82	22	8,00
Natural phenomena	0	0,00	2	0,73	2	0,73
Medical	1	0,36	10	3,64	11	4,00
Fantasy people	4	1,45	4	1,45	8	2,91
School	7	2,55	3	1,09	10	3,64
Crime/Violence	13	4,73	23	8,36	36	13,09
Other	31	11,27	20	7,27	51	18,55
Total	**128**	**46,55**	**147**	**53,45**	**275**	

A summary of the number of times a specific fear was displayed by the coloured South African children is provided in Table 17.

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Table 17
Percentages Attributed to the Total Number of Fears for the Coloured South African Children and their Gender Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Categories	Fears: Boys no. (n=104)	% of total fears	Fears: Girls no. (n=95)	% of total fears	Total (n=199)	% of total fears
Wild animals	100	12,76	124	15,82	224	28,57
Domestic animals	15	1,91	28	3,57	43	5,48
Insects	17	2,17	28	3,57	45	5,74
Sea animals	4	0,51	12	1,53	16	2,04
Fantasy animals	0	0,00	0	0,00	0	0,00
Subtotal	136	17,35	192	24,49	328	41,84
Real people	27	3,44	36	4,59	63	8,03
Dark/Night	14	1,79	29	3,70	43	5,48
Natural phenomena	0	0,00	9	1,15	9	1,15
Medical	4	0,51	10	1,28	14	1,79
Fantasy people	11	1,40	22	2,81	33	4,21
School	10	1,28	13	1,66	23	2,93
Crime/Violence	74	9,44	93	11,86	167	21,30
Other	43	5,48	61	7,78	104	13,27
Total	**319**	**40,69**	**465**	**59,31**	**784**	

A more detailed representation of the actual content of fear for all the cultures as well as the overall content of fear, has been illustrated in Addenda B, C, D and E.

The broad categories into which reported fears were assigned to represent the content of fears are as follows:

The wild animals category was most feared for all the cultures, in particular the snake (see Table 14-17). Snakes were mentioned by 14,39% of the black South African participants, 9,18% of the white South African participants and 12,63% of the coloured South African participants (Addenda B, C, D & E).

The content of the fears for the black South African children were substantially from the categories of wild animals (38,96%), followed by crime or violence (20,10%) and to a lesser degree other (7,69%), domestic animals (8,44%) and insects (7,94%) feature (see Table 15).

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The white South African children's fears represented mainly wild animals (21,45%), followed by other (18,55%) and crime or violence (13,09%). The fear of real people (8,36%), dark or night (8,00%) and insects (9,09%) were also reported (see Table 16).

Wild animals (28,57%) comprised the largest category for the coloured South African children, followed by crime or violence (21,30%). The categories other (13,27%), domestic animals (5,48%) and insects (5,74%) featured but not as strongly (see Table 17).

4.1.2.2. The results regarding the FSSC-R

The means and standard deviations based on the results of the FSSC-R are reported in Table 18. The mean represents an average out of a possible 80 items.

Table 18
The Means and Standard Deviations for the Number of Fears Based on the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Culture		Mean	SD
Black	Boy	25,36	11,89
	Girl	39,63	11,47
	Total	32,94	13,64
White	Boy	12,05	11,44
	Girl	21,80	15,30
	Total	16,07	13,96
Coloured	Boy	20,77	12,91
	Girl	33,22	12,59
	Total	26,71	14,17
Total (Black, White & Coloured)	Boy	19,12	13,19
	Girl	32,24	14,43
	Total	25,32	15,25

Note. The results for Gender are discussed in section 4.2.2.

The number of fears were explored by computing a 3 (culture: black South African culture, white South African culture and coloured South African culture) X 2(gender: boys, girls) ANOVA. A summary of the factorial ANOVA is shown in Table 19.

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Table 19
Summary of the Factorial ANOVA for the Number of Fears on the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F	p
Between groups					
Culture (C)	2	12883,63	6441,81	40,45	0,00
Gender (G)	1	13329,73	13329,73	83,70	0,00
C X G	2	263,90	131,95	0,83	0,44
Within groups	398	63387,11	159,26		

Note. The results for the main effect Gender are discussed in section 4.2.2.

The F-value for culture was found to be significant (F [2, 398] = 40,45, $p < 0,05$) (see Table 19). There was a significant difference between the number of fears of the black South African culture (M=32,94), white South African culture (M=16,07) and the coloured South African culture (M=26,71). No significant interaction effect was apparent (see Table 19).

To ascertain where the difference between the cultural groups was, Bonferonni confidence intervals, controlling for family wise error rate were computed. These findings are presented in Table 20.

Table 20
Pairwise Comparisons of the Number of Fears for the Cultural Groups

Culture(I)	Culture(J)	Mean difference(I-J)	Bonferonni Intervals		p
Black	White	15,58	12,07	19,07	0,00
	Coloured	5,50	2,41	8,58	0,00
White	Coloured	-10,07	-13,06	-7,08	0,00

The Bonferonni confidence intervals indicate that the number of fears of the black South African culture (M=32,94) was significantly higher than the number of fears of the white South African culture (M=16,07) (see Table 20). There was a significant difference between black (M=32,94) and coloured (M=26,71) South African culture, as well as a significant difference between the white (M=16,07) and coloured (M=26,71) (see Table 18).

4.1.2.3. Description of the level of fear

The purpose of the FOM in this study was to provide additional information in obtaining a more complete picture of the content of fear and to a lesser degree the number of fears. To the

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researcher's knowledge the FSSC-R has not been previously applied in South Africa. Although the reliability and validity of the FSSC-R are proven (Ollendick, 1983) an extra precaution was taken to compensate for any possible shortcomings by employing a multi-method assessment strategy. The FOM was also utilised as an exploratory assessment tool due to its unstructured nature.

The level and pattern of fear results regarding the FSSC-R were obtained in order to gather a body of knowledge regarding South African children's fears, enabling cross-national and cross-cultural comparisons with previous studies such as the research by Ingman et al. (1999) and Ollendick et al. (1996).

The FOM was fairly unstructured with an opening question, " What do you fear most and how much do you fear it?" and the participants were left with nearly no constraints in their answer except for having to indicate how scared they were on a 3 point scale (none = 1, some =2 and a lot = 3). The FSSC-R was much more structured in comparison to the FOM and therefore the statistical analyses differed.

The mean and the standard deviations based on the results of the FSSC-R regarding the level of fear are provided in Table 21. The mean represents the average expressed by the participants out of a possible score of 240.

Table 21
The Means and Standard Deviation for the Level of Fear on the Fear Survey Schedule Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Culture		Mean	SD
Black	Boy	160,73	21,45
	Girl	185,14	16,51
	Total	173,70	22,50
White	Boy	128,81	27,05
	Girl	149,58	30,41
	Total	137,39	30,15
Coloured	Boy	146,27	27,43
	Girl	170,09	23,35
	Total	157,64	28,15
Total (Black, White & Coloured)	Boy	144,08	28,46
	Girl	169,28	26,75
	Total	155,99	30,37

Note. The results for Gender are discussed in section 4.2.3.

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The level of fear experienced was the highest for the black South African children (M=173,70). The lowest level of fear was revealed by the white South African children (M=137,39) (see Table 21).

An factorial ANOVA was conducted to determine whether any significant differences were apparent regarding the level of fear which is the sum of the responses to the 80 items on the FSSC-R. More specifically, a 3(culture: black South African culture, white South African culture, coloured South African culture) X 2(gender: boys, girls) ANOVA was conducted on the total fear score and a summary of the findings are provided in Table 22.

Table 22
Summary of the Factorial ANOVA for the Level of Fear on the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean of squares	F	p
Between groups					
Culture (C)	2	58026,39	29013,20	46,30	0,00
Gender (G)	1	47689,02	47689,02	76,10	0,00
(C) X (G)	2	210,50	105,25	0,17	0,85
Within groups	398	249422,18	626,69		

Note. The results for the main effect Gender are discussed in section 4.2.3.

The results show that the F-value was significant ($F[2, 398] = 46,30$, $p < 0,00$) (see Table 22). There was a difference between the level of fear from the different cultures. There were no significant interaction effects (see Table 22).

In order to determine where the differences between the cultural groups were apparent the Bonferonni confidence intervals were determined. The results are provided in Table 23.

Table 23
Pairwise Comparisons for the Level of Fear of the Cultural Groups

Culture(I)	Culture(J)	Mean difference(I-J)	Bonferonni intervals		p
Black	White	33,74	26,79	40,69	0.00
	Coloured	14,75	8,63	20,88	0,00
White	Coloured	-18,99	-24,91	-13,06	0,00

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There was a significant difference between the black and white South African children, as well as the black and coloured South African children (M=173,70 and M=157,64) in the expression of the level of fear (see Table 21 & 23).

4.1.2.4. Description of the pattern of fear

The means and standard deviations for the pattern of fear are displayed in Table 24.

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Table 24
The Mean and Standard Deviation for the Pattern of Fear on the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Dependent variable	Culture	Gender	Mean	SD
Factor 1	Black	Boy	43,96	5,87
		Girl	49,76	6,77
		Total	47,04	6,97
	White	Boy	37,66	8,93
		Girl	42,82	9,78
		Total	39,79	9,59
	Coloured	Boy	41,06	8,51
		Girl	45,28	7,44
		Total	43,08	8,28
	Total (Black, White & Coloured)	Boy	40,64	8,44
		Girl	45,90	8,25
		Total	43,13	8,74
Factor 2	Black	Boy	36,91	6,49
		Girl	42,80	4,47
		Total	40,04	6,22
	White	Boy	26,95	6,34
		Girl	31,91	8,73
		Total	29,00	7,78
	Coloured	Boy	31,90	7,79
		Girl	38,84	7,07
		Total	35,22	8,21
	Total (Black, White & Coloured)	Boy	31,47	7,92
		Girl	38,26	7,93
		Total	34,69	8,61
Factor 3	Black	Boy	33,76	6,12
		Girl	40,69	4,25
		Total	37,44	6,24
	White	Boy	25,98	6,40
		Girl	30,78	6,34
		Total	27,96	6,77
	Coloured	Boy	30,31	6,10
		Girl	37,12	6,20
		Total	33,56	7,02
	Total (Black, White & Coloured)	Boy	29,74	6,77
		Girl	36,58	6,76
		Total	32,97	7,57
Factor 4	Black	Boy	29,76	3,96
		Girl	31,90	2,52
		Total	30,90	3,43
	White	Boy	25,17	6,40
		Girl	28,76	5,27
		Total	26,65	6,19
	Coloured	Boy	27,72	6,00
		Girl	31,34	4,79
		Total	29,45	5,74

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Dependent variable	Culture	Gender	Mean	SD
	Total (Black, White & Coloured)	Boy	27,39	5,97
		Girl	30,88	4,57
		Total	29,04	5,63
Factor 5	Black	Boy	7,02	1,59
		Girl	9,33	1,77
		Total	8,25	2,01
	White	Boy	5,58	1,73
		Girl	6,80	2,47
		Total	6,08	2,15
	Coloured	Boy	6,31	2,05
		Girl	7,24	2,08
		Total	6,75	2,11
	Total (Black, White & Coloured)	Boy	6,24	1,92
		Girl	7,70	2,32
		Total	6,93	2,24

Note. The results for Gender are discussed in section 4.2.4.

Factor 1 (fear of failure and criticism), Factor 2 (fear of the unknown), Factor 3 (fear of injury and small animals), Factor 4 (fear of danger and death) and Factor 5 (medical fears).

A 3(Culture: black South African culture, white South African culture, coloured South African culture) X 2(gender: boy, girl) MANOVA was conducted on the sum of the responses to the items contained on each of the five-factor scales, thus allowing cross-cultural comparisons with respect to the level of fear experienced on each respective factor. A summary of the factorial MANOVA is shown in Table 25.

Table 25

Summary of the Factorial MANOVA for the Five Factors on the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Source	df	Wilk's Lambda	F	p
Culture	10	0,70	15,39	0,00
Gender	10	0,78	22,05	0,00
Interaction effect	10	0,95	2,25	0,01
Error	788			

Note. The results for the main effect Gender are discussed in section 4.2.4.

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The results of the five factors measuring for culture indicated that the multivariate Wilk's Lambda was significant ($F[10, 788] = 15,39$, $p < 0,05$) (see Table 25).

Pairwise comparisons were done because the multivariate statistic (Wilk's Lamba) was significant in order to identify statistically significant differences for the five factor scales. The Bonferonni confidence intervals for the mean differences were computed in order to control for the family wise error rate for multiple comparisons. The Bonferonni confidence intervals are presented in Table 26.

Table 26
Tests of Between-Culture Effects for the Five Factors

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean of squares	F	p
Factor 1	2	2205,24	1102,62	17,07	0,00
Error	398	25715,09	64,61		
Factor 2	2	5554,20	2777,10	56,13	0,00
Error	398	19691,86	49,48		
Factor 3	2	4051,00	2025,50	56,19	0,00
Error	398	14347,93	36,05		
Factor 4	2	803,14	401,57	14,96	0,00
Error	398	10680,38	26,84		
Factor 5	2	211,42	105,71	27,03	0,00
Error	398	1556,71	3,91		

Upon further observation, the pairwise comparisons showed significant differences among factors 1 to 5 (see Table 26). These are: Factor 1 [$F (2, 398)=17,07$; $p< 0,01$], Factor 2 [$F (2, 398)=56,13$; $p<0,01$], Factor 3 [$F (2,398)=56,19$; $p<0, 01$]; Factor 4 [$F (2, 398)=14,96$; $p<0,01$] and Factor 5 [$F (2, 398)=27,03$; $p<0,01$] (see Table 26).

Further Bonferonni confidence intervals were computed in order to ascertain where the difference was apparent among the cultural groups. Table 27 presents the findings.

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Table 27
Pairwise Comparisons for the Pattern of Fear with Culture and Gender as Independent Variables

Dependent variable	Culture(I)	Culture(J)	Mean difference	Bonferonni intervals		p
Factor 1	Black	White	6,62	3,89	9,35	0,00
		Coloured	3,69	1,28	6,10	0,01
	White	Coloured	-2,93	-5.26	-0,61	0,05
Factor 2	Black	White	10,43	8,04	12,81	0,00
		Coloured	4,49	2,38	6,59	0,00
	White	Coloured	-5,94	-7,98	-3,91	0,00
Factor 3	Black	White	8,84	6,80	10,88	0,00
		Coloured	3,51	1,71	5,31	0,00
	White	Coloured	-5,33	-7,07	-3,59	0,00
Factor 4	Black	White	3,87	2,11	5,62	0,00
		Coloured	1,30	-0,25	2,85	0,13
	White	Coloured	-2,57	-4,07	-1,07	0,00
Factor 5	Black	White	-1,99	1,32	2,66	0,00
		Coloured	1,40	0,81	2,00	0,00
	White	Coloured	-0,59	-1,16	-0,01	0,04

These significant differences were apparent among all cultures for all factors, except factor 4, where no significant differences were found between the black and coloured South African children (see Table 27).

The level of fear rank order for the fear subscales from highest to lowest for all cultures was as follows: Factor 1 (fear of failure and criticism, M=43,13), factor 2 (fear of the unknown, M=34,69), factor 3 (fear of injury and small animals, M=32,97), factor 4 (fear of death and danger, M=29,04) and factor 5 (medical fears, M=6,93). The mean level of fear of each individual factor for each culture is illustrated in Table 24. This finding of the mean rank order of each factor for each individual culture was further reinforced by the rank order of the factors for the overall mean level of fear for each factor (see Table 24).

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4.2. GENDER AND CONTENT, NUMBER, LEVEL AND PATTERN OF FEAR

4.2.1. Gender differences with regard to content of fear

4.2.1.1. Results regarding the whole sample

In Table 28 the ten most common fears based on the number of the South African boys endorsing a particular fear, is shown.

Table 28
Fear Rank Order for all the South African Boys (n=213)Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Item	Number of sample	Percentage of sample
(1) Snake	78	36,63
(2) Weapons	42	19,72
(3) Predator	40	18,78
(4) Death	29	13,62
(5) Gangs	27	12,68
(6) Shark	19	8,92
(7)Crocodile	18	8,45
(8)Transport	17	7,98
(9) Dog	16	7,51
Crime	16	7,51

The ten most common fears for all the South African girls is provided in Table 29.

Table 29
Fear Rank Order for all the South African Girls (n=191) Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Item	Number of sample	Percentage of sample
(1) Snake	106	55,50
(2) Predators	52	27,23
(3) Weapons	48	25,13
(4) Crime	41	24,47
(5) Spider	32	16,75
(6) Dog	27	14,14
Transport	27	14,14
(8) Death	26	13,61
(9) Gangs	24	12,57
(10)Lizard	21	10,99

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Upon comparison of the ten most common fears for the FOM for the boys and girls, 8 matches were present. The unmatched items for the boys were: sharks and crocodiles (see Tables 28 & 29). The unmatched items for the girls were: spiders and lizards (see Tables 28 & 29).

The girls (55,5%) endorsed their first fear more strongly than the boys (36,62%). The tenth item was endorsed with 10,99% and 7,51% respectively. Both the girls and boys feared the snake most often. The range of endorsement between the first and tenth item for the boys was 29,11% and the girls 44,5%. The girls experienced a much longer range than the boys (see Tables 28 & 29).

The ten most common fears derived from the results of the FSSC-R for all the South African boys is shown in Table 30.

Table 30
Fear Rank Order for all the South African Boys (n=213) Based on the Results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Item	Number of sample	Percentage of sample
(1) Not being able to breathe	130	61,03
(2) Getting a shock from electricity	123	57,75
(3) Being hit by a car or truck	120	56,34
Falling from high places	120	56,34
(5) Bombing attacks - being invaded	113	53,05
(6) Germs/getting a serious illness	112	52,58
(7) Death/dead people	110	51,64
(8) Getting lost in a strange place	106	49,77
Bears/wolves	106	49,77
Fire-getting burned	106	49,77

In Table 31 the ten most common fears, based on the results of the FSSC-R, for all the South African girls is displayed.

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Table 31
Fear Rank Order for all the South African Girls (n=191) Based on the Results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Item	Number of sample	Percentage of sample
(1) Not being able to breathe	155	81,15
(2) Being hit by a car or truck	144	75,39
(3) Getting lost in a strange place	143	74,87
(4) Falling from high places	142	74,35
(5) A burglar breaking into our house	141	73,82
(6) Snakes	138	72,25
(7) Getting a shock from electricity	135	70,68
(8) Germs/getting a serious illness	133	69,63
(9) Bombing attacks-being invaded	132	69,11
(10) Guns	129	67,54

The results of the FSSC-R for the ten most common fears for the boys and girls indicate that seven matches were apparent. The unmatched items for the boys were: death or dead people, bears or wolves and fire-getting burned. The girls' unmatched items were: a burglar breaking into our house, snakes and guns (see Tables 30 & 31).

When comparing the results of the FOM and the FSSC-R once again, the girls (81,15%) endorsed the first item more strongly than the boys (61,03%). Incidentally it was the same for both, namely, the fear of not being able to breathe. The tenth item was endorsed with 49,77% for the boys and 67,54% for the girls. The range of endorsement was higher for the girls (13,63%) but only slightly. The boys displayed a range of endorsement of 11,26% (see Tables 30 & 31).

4.2.1.2. Results of the black South African children

The ten most common fears expressed by the black South African boys are presented in Table 32.

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Table 32
Fear Rank Order for the Black South African Boys (n=45) Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Item	Number of sample	Percentage of sample
(1) Snake	23	51,11
(2) Predators	15	33,33
(3) Weapons	13	28,89
(4) Crocodile	12	26,67
(5) Gangs	7	15,56
(6) Dog	6	13,33
Cat	6	13,33
Monkey	6	13,33
Insects	6	13,33
(10) Lizard	5	11,11

The ten most feared items displayed by the black South African girls are provided in Table 33.

Table 33
Fear Rank Order for Black South African Girls (n=51) Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Item	Number of sample	Percentage of sample
(1) Snake	35	68,63
(2) Predators	24	47,06
Weapons	24	47,06
(4) Transport	14	27,45
(5) Gangs	13	25,49
(6) Dog	12	23,53
(7) Crime	11	21,57
Lizard	11	21,57
(9) Crocodile	10	19,61
(10)Soldiers/Police	9	17,65
Insects	9	17,65

Upon comparison of the ten most common fears for the boys and girls for the FOM, eight matches were present. The unmatched items for the boys were: cat, monkey and for the girls: crime and soldiers or police (see Tables 32 & 33).

The girls experienced higher levels of fear with a 68,63% of endorsement for the strongest fear, while the boys displayed a lower fear with 51,11%. The range of fear endorsement for the boys and girls of the ten most common fears was 40,00% and 51,00% respectively, indicating that the range was longer for the girls (see Tables 32 & 33).

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The most feared objects of the black South African boys, derived from the results of the FSSC-R, are displayed in Table 34.

Table 34
Fear Rank Order for the Black South African Boys (n=45) Based on the results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Item	Number of sample	Percentage of sample
(1) Bombing attacks-being invaded	35	77,78
(2) Getting a shock from electricity	34	75,56
(3) Death or dead people	33	73,33
(4) Ghost or spooky things	31	68,89
Not being able to breathe	31	68,89
(6) Being hit by a car	30	66,67
Cemeteries	30	66,67
(8) Germs or getting a serious illness	29	64,44
Guns	29	64,44
(10) Nightmares	28	62,22
Earthquakes	28	62,22

Information regarding the ten most common fears expressed by the black South African girls with respects to the FSSC-R is given in Table 35.

Table 35
Fear Rank Order for the Black South African Girls (n=51) Based on the Results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Item	Number of sample	Percentage of sample
(1) Snakes	47	92,16
(2) Bombing attacks being invaded	46	90,20
(3) Guns	44	86,27
(4) Getting a shock from electricity	43	84,13
(5) Not being able to breathe	42	82,35
Cemeteries	42	82,35
(7) Ghost or spooky things	41	80,39
Germs or getting a serious illness	41	80,39
(9) Death or dead people	39	76,47
Fire-getting burned	39	76,47
Being hit by a car or truck	39	76,47

The results of the FSSC-R of the ten most common fears for the boys and girls shows that eight of the ten most common fears are identical. The ones which are not identical for the boys are:

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earthquakes and nightmares. The girls' unmatched items are snakes and fire-getting burned (see Table 34 & 35).

The girls endorsed the fears with a higher percentage than the boys. The highest percentage of endorsement for the most common fear for the girls was 92,16 % and for the boys it was 77,78%. The lowest percentage of the last fear of the ten most common fears was 76,47% for the girls and 62,22% for the boys. The range of the percentages of endorsement of the ten most common fears for the girls was 15,69% and for the boys was 15,56% (see Tables 34 & 35).

When comparing the results of the FOM and the FSSC-R, one matching fear was found for the boys, namely, weapons and for the girls two matching items were found, these being snakes and weapons (see Tables 32-35).

4.2.1.3. Results of the white South African children

In Table 36 the most feared objects, based on the results of the FOM, expressed by the white South African boys are shown.

Table 36
Fear Rank Order for the White South African Boys(n=64) Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Item	Number of sample	Percentage of sample
(1) Sharks	13	20,31
(2) Snakes	10	15,63
(3) Transport	9	14,06
(4) Beggars	8	12,50
(5) Tests	6	9,38
(6) Predator	5	7,81
(7) Crime	4	6,25
Wild animals	4	6,25
(9) Gangs	3	4,69
Thieves	3	4,69
Girls	3	4,69
Friends	3	4,69
Darkness	3	4,69

The ten most common fears of the white South African girls are presented in Table 37.

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Table 37
Fear Rank Order for the White South African Girls (n=45) Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Item	Number of sample	Percentage of sample
(1) Snake	17	37,78
(2) Spider	12	26,67
(3) Crime	9	20,00
(4) Alone at home	7	15,56
(5) Predator	6	13,33
Thieves	6	13,33
Unaccompanied on excursions	6	13,33
(8) Illness	5	11,11
(9) Transport	4	8,89
Sharks	4	8,89

Six matches were found when comparing the results of the FOM for the boys and girls (see Tables 36 & 37). These matches were sharks, snakes, thieves, crime and predators. The remaining fears for the boys were: beggars, tests, wild animals, gangs, girls, friends and darkness. For the girls they were: spiders, alone at home, unaccompanied on excursions and illness.

Girls had a higher percentage of endorsement of the most common fears (37,78%) than boys (20,31%). The range was also longer for the girls (28,89%) than the boys (15,62%) (see Tables 36 & 37).

Table 38 presents the most feared items for the white South African boys with respect to results of the FSSC-R.

Table 38
Fear Rank Order for the White South African Boys (n=64) Based on the Results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Item	Number of sample	Percentages of sample
(1) Not being able to breathe	35	54,69
(2) Being hit by a car or truck	32	50,00
Failing a test	32	50,00
(4) Getting a shock from electricity	30	46,88
(5) Falling from high places	29	45,31
(6) Fire-getting burned	28	43,75
(7) Bombing attacks-being invaded	27	42,19
A burglar breaking into our house	27	42,19
(9) Germs/ getting a serious illness	26	40,63
(10) Getting poor grades	25	39,06

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The ten most common fears expressed by the white South African children with respect to the FSSC-R results are presented in Table 39.

Table 39
Fear Rank Order for the White South African Girls (n=45) Based on the Results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Item	Number of sample	Percentage of sample
(1) Not being able to breathe	36	80,00
(2) Falling from high places	32	71,11
A burglar breaking into our house	32	71,11
(4) Bombing attacks-being invaded	30	66,67
(5) Getting poor grades	29	64,44
(6) Being hit by a car or truck	28	62,22
Fire-getting burned	28	62,22
(8) Snakes	27	60,00
(9) Getting lost in a strange place	26	57,78
(10) Failing a test	25	55,56

When Table 38 and Table 39 (results of the FSSC-R for the boys and girls respectively) were compared, eight matches were identified. These were: not being able to breathe, being hit by a car or truck, falling from high places, failing a test, bombing attacks-being invaded, a burglar breaking into our house, getting poor grades and fire-getting burned. The two fears that did not match for the boys were getting a shock from electricity and germs or getting a serious illness and for the girls these were getting lost in a strange place and snakes (see Tables 38 & 39).

It is important to note that the girls (80,00%) had a higher percentage of endorsement than the boys (54,69%). The ranges enforced of the above are 24,44% and 15,63% respectively. The tenth item was endorsed with 55,56% for the girls and 39,06% for the boys (see Tables 38 & 39).

Two matches were present when comparing the results of the boys from the two measuring instruments, the FOM and the FSSC-R. These were: failing a test and a burglar breaking into our house. Two matches were found as well for the girls: a burglar breaking into our house and snakes (see Tables 36-39).

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4.2.1.4. Results of the coloured South African children

The ten most common fears of the coloured South African boys, based on the results of the FOM, are shown in Table 40.

Table 40
Fear Rank Order for the Coloured South African Boys (n=104) Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Item	Number of sample	Percentage of sample
(1) Snakes	45	43,27
(2) Weapons	29	27,88
(3) Predators	20	19,23
(4) Death/dead people	19	18,27
(5) Gangs	17	16,35
(6) Dogs	10	9,62
(7) Spider	9	8,65
Parents	9	8,65
Crime	9	8,65
(10)Shooting	7	6,73
Teachers	7	6,73
Wild animals	7	6,73
Ghosts	7	6,73

The most feared items displayed by the coloured South African girls are presented in Table 41.

Table 41
Fear Rank Order for the Coloured South African Girls (n=95) Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Item	Number of sample	Percentage of sample
(1) Snake	54	56,84
(2) Weapons	24	25,26
(3) Predators	22	23,16
(4) Crime	21	22,11
(5) Death/dead people	19	20,00
(6) Ghosts	18	18,95
(7) Rape	14	14,74
Rats and mice	14	14,74
Strangers	14	14,74
(10)Spiders	12	12,63
Dogs	12	12,63
Unaccompanied on excursions	12	12,63

The results of the FOM indicate eight matches among the ten most common fears for the boys and girls. These were: snake, predator, weapons, crime, death or dead people, dog, spider and ghosts. The unmatched items for the boys were: gangs, parents, shooting, tests and wild animals. The girls displayed the following: rats and mice, strangers, rape and unaccompanied on excursions (see Tables 40 & 41).

The girls had a higher percentage of endorsement (56,84%) than the boys (43,27%). The ranges of the percentages of endorsement of the ten most common fears was also longer for the girls (44,17%) than boys (36,54%) (see Tables 40 & 41).

Table 42 represents the ten most common fears of the coloured South African boys, derived from the results of the FSSC-R.

Table 42
Fear Rank Order for the Coloured South African Boys (n=104) Based on the Results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Item	Number of sample	Percentage of sample
(1) Falling from high places	69	66,35
(2) Not being able to breathe	64	61,54
(3) Bears/Wolves	59	56,73
Getting a shock from electricity	59	56,73
(5) Being hit by a car or truck	58	55,77
(6) Germs/getting a serious illness	57	54,81
(7) Getting lost in a strange place	56	53,85
(8) Death/dead people	55	52,88
(9) Earthquakes	52	50,00
(10) Getting poor grades	51	49,04
Guns	51	49,04
Bombing attacks-being invaded	51	49,04
Fire-getting burned	51	49,04

The ten most common fears, based on the FSSC-R results, for the coloured South African children is shown in Table 43.

Table 43
Fear Rank Order for the Coloured South African Girls (n=95) Based on the Results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Item	Number of sample	Percentage of sample
(1) Getting lost in a strange place	81	85,26
(2) Falling from high places	80	84,21
(3) Being hit by a car or truck	77	81,05
Not being able to breathe	77	81,05
(5) A burglar breaking into our house	73	76,84
(6) Germs/getting a serious illness	70	73,68
(7) Death/dead people	69	72,63
Earthquakes	69	72,63
(9) Getting a shock from electricity	68	71,58
(10) Guns	67	70,53
Bears/Wolves	67	70,53

The results of the FSSC-R for the boys and girls of the ten most common fears upon comparison yielded nine matches. These nine matches were: falling from high places, bears or wolves, not being able to breathe, getting a shock from electricity, getting lost in a strange place, being hit by a car or truck, germs or getting a serious illness, earthquakes and death or dead people. The items that did not match for the boys were: getting poor grades, bombing attacks-being invaded and fire-getting burned. The unmatched item for the girls was a burglar breaking into our house (see Tables 42 & 43).

There was a difference among the percentage of endorsement for the boys and girls, with the girls having the higher percentages. The range of endorsement for the boys was 17,31% and for the girls was 14,73% (see Tables 42 & 43).

When comparing the ten most common fears of the boys on the two measuring instruments (FOM and FSSC-R) two matches were obtained death or dead people and weapons. For the girls two matches were found as well, which were the same as the ones for the boys (see Tables 40-43).

4.2.1.5. Description of the fear rank orders of all the cultures

The FOM method yielded the following upon comparison: three matches for the boys and five matches for the girls in the black and white South African group: five matches for the boys and five matches for the girls in the black and coloured South African group and three matches for the boys

and four matches for the girls in the white and coloured culture (Tables 28, 29, 32, 33, 36, 37, 40 & 41).

Further comparison between the girls and boys of the three cultural groups and the FSSC-R yielded five matches among the boys of the black and white South African children, four matches among the girls of the black and white South African groups, eight matches among the black and coloured South African boys and six matches among the girls. There were a further eight matches among the boys of the white and coloured South African children and five matches among the girls (Tables 30, 31, 34, 35, 38, 39, 42 & 43).

4.2.2. Gender differences with regard to the number of fears

Table 44 provides a summary of the number of fears, which were expressed by the boys and girls respectively.

Table 44
Summary of the Number of Fears for Gender Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM)

Group	Number of fears			Number of fears per person		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Black South African children	152 (n=45)	251 (n=51)	403 (n=96)	3,38	4,92	4,198
White South African children	128 (n=64)	147 (n=45)	275 (n=109)	2,00	3,27	2,52
Coloured South African children	319 (n=104)	465 (n=95)	784 (n=199)	3,07	4,90	3,94
All South African children	599 (n=213)	863 (n=191)	1462 (N=404)	2,81	4,52	3,62

The girls expressed a higher number of fears among the three cultural groups as well as overall (Girls=4,52 and Boys=2,81). Among the black South African children the girls expressed 4,92 fears and the boys 3,38 fears. The white South African girls had 3,27 and the boys 2,00 fears. The coloured South African girls displayed 4,90 fears and the boys expressed 3,07 fears. Important to notice is that the differences among the percentages of the number of fears was the highest for the

black South African children followed by the coloured and lastly the white South African children (see Table 44).

The results of Tables 14 to 17 and Addenda B to E are further discussed here because of the relevance to gender.

The broad categories were: wild animals, domestic animals, insects, sea animals, fantasy animals, real people, dark or night, natural phenomena, medical, fantasy people, school, crime or violence and other (see Table 14-17), of the FOM were not identically represented among all the South African boys and girls. The categories from highest to lowest for the boys were: wild animals (12,93%), crime or violence (7,73%), other (5,81%) and real people (3,83%). The girls displayed one difference, their order from the most feared were: wild animals (17,17%), crime or violence (11,70%), other (6,91%) and insects (4,72%) (see Table 14).

The category which was most feared by the black South African boys, was wild animals (16,13%), followed by crime or violence (6,45%), domestic animals (3,23%) and insects (2,73%). The girls distribution of their most feared categories was in accordance with the aforesaid categories (22,83%; 13,65%; 5,21% and 5,21% respectively) (see Table 15).

The white South African boys and girls did not demonstrate such unity. The boys' most feared category was wild animals (8,73%) with real people (6,55%), sea animals (5,09%) and crime or violence (4,73%) being subordinate. The categories of crime or violence (8,36%), insects (7,27%) and dark or night (5,82%) came after wild animals (12,73%) for the girls (see Table 16).

The coloured South African boys and girls feared the categories in the same order with the lead taken by wild animals (12,76%) and 15,82% respectively, followed by crime or violence (9,44% and 11,86%), other (5,48% and 7,78%) and real people (3,44% and 4,59%) (see Table 17).

It is imperative to make the observation that the most feared item for nearly all the boys and girls was the snake from the wild animals category. The only exception were the white South African boys who feared sharks (4,73%) from the sea or water animals category slightly more than snakes(3,64%) from the wild animals category (Addenda B-E).

Bonferonni confidence intervals were computed with respect to gender and the results are shown in Table 45.

Table 45
Pairwise Comparisons for the Gender Differences with Regard to Number of fears

Gender(I)	Gender(J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Bonferonni intervals		p
Male	Female	-12,16	-14,77	-9,55	0,00

Gender related results are discussed in this section including the significant differences in Table 19. The F-value was significant (F[1, 398]=83,70, p< 0,001) (see Table 19). There was a significant difference between the means of the boys (M=19,12) and the girls (M= 32,24) (see Tables 18, 19 & 45). The females (M=32,24) experienced a higher number of fears than the boys (M=19,12). This trend was also observed among the individual cultures, with girls experiencing a higher number of fears than boys (see Table 18).

4.2.3. Gender differences with regard to level of fear

Table 46 presents the significant gender differences which were apparent.

Table 46
Pairwise Comparisons for Gender Differences with Regard to the Level of Fear Based on the Results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R)

Gender (I)	Gender (J)	Mean Difference(I-J)	Bonferonni Intervals		p
Male	Female	-23,00	-28,18	-17,82	0,00

The results of Tables 21 and 22 with respect to gender are further discussed here. The F-value was significant (F[1, 398]=76,07, p<0,01) (see Table 22). The boys (M=144,08) experienced a lower level of fear than the girls (M=169,28), showing that there was a difference in the means of the gender (see Tables 21 & 46). Females also experienced a higher level of fear when looking at all the three cultures separately, than males (see Table 21).

4.2.4. Gender differences with regard to pattern of fear

A summary of the significant differences of the Factorial MANOVA were reported in Table 25 but are mentioned once again because of the relevance to gender. The results for the pattern of fear

related to gender indicate that there was a significant multivariate Wilk's Lambda transformed to a F (5, 398)=22,05, p< 0,01 (see Table 25).

To ascertain where the gender differences were apparent on the five factors Bonferonni confidence intervals were computed. The results are presented in Table 47.

Table 47
Pairwise Comparisons for the Gender Differences with Regard to the Pattern of Fear

Dependent variable	Gender(I)	Gender(J)	Mean difference(I-J)	Bonferonni intervals		p
Factor 1	Male	Female	-5,07	-6,73	-3,40	0,00
Factor 2	Male	Female	-5,93	-7,39	-4,47	0,00
Factor 3	Male	Female	-6,18	-7,42	-4,93	0,00
Factor 4	Male	Female	-3,12	-4,19	-2,04	0,00
Factor 5	Male	Female	-1,49	-1,90	-1,08	0,00

Table 48 provides the gender effects on the five factors..

Table 48
Tests of Between-Gender Effects for the Five Factors

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean Squares	F	p
Factor 1	1	2315,09	2315,09	35,83	0,00
Error	398	25715,08	64,61		
Factor 2	1	3170,24	3170,24	64,08	0,00
Error	398	19691,86	49,48		
Factor 3	1	3440,66	3440,66	95,44	0,00
Error	398	14347,93	36,05		
Factor 4	1	875,02	875,02	32,61	0,00
Error	398	10680,38	26,84		
Factor 5	1	199,94	199,94	51,12	0,00
Error	398	1556,71	3,91		

The pairwise comparisons showed significant differences on all factors with the females expressing a higher level of fear on each factor than the males (see Tables 47 & 48).

4.3. SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS AND THE NUMBER, LEVEL AND PATTERN OF FEAR

A warning to proceed with caution when interpreting the results that will follow must be given at this stage. The reason for this being that a factorial MANOVA was computed with only gender and socio-economic status (SES) as independent variables, because if culture had been entered into the equation the sample sizes for each SES level would not have been large enough to provide statistically valid results (Addendum F). This was also the reason why separate factorial MANOVA's were carried out previously, with either SES or culture being one of the independent variables but never at the same time.

Addendum F provides a detailed description of how the sample represented culture and SES.

The results were only computed for the number, level and pattern of fear to provide some indication of the influence of SES. No results for the content of fears were obtained, because the focus of the present study is a cross- cultural one and not socio-economic one.

The sample was divided into 4 socio-economic levels according to the zones in which the school that the respective participant attended, was situated. These zones are the results of a study by the University of Stellenbosch (1995). The monthly income per household determined by the same study was also taken into consideration with the division of the greater Stellenbosch area into these zones.

4.3.1. Differences in number of fears with regard to SES

The mean and standard deviation of fears expressed by the participants among each socio-economic level are given in Table 49. The mean expressed is the average number of fears out of a possible 80 items.

Table 49
The Means and Standard Deviations for the Number of Fears with Regard to Socio-Economic Status (SES)

SES	Mean	SD
Low	33,95	13,48
Low to medium	28,94	14,42
Medium	22,67	12,55
Medium to high	14,47	13,65
Grand mean	25,32	15,25

Table 50 displays a summary of the Factorial MANOVA which was computed in order to determine if SES played a role in the expression of fears.

Table 50
Summary of the Factorial MANOVA for the Number of Fears with Regard to Socio-Economic Status (SES)

Source	df	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F	p
Between groups					
SES	3	16593,61	5531,20	36,72	0,00
Interaction effect	3	620,46	206,82	1,373	0,25
Within groups	396	59658,05	150,65		

The F-value ($F[3, 396] = 36,72$, $p < 0,01$) was found to be significant (see Table 50). The Bonferonni confidence intervals were determined to ascertain where the significant differences in the expression of the number of fears between the socio-economic levels were apparent. These findings are shown in Table 50.

Table 51
Pairwise Comparisons for the Difference in Number of Fears with Regard to Socio-Economic Status (SES)

SES (I)	SES(J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Bonferonni Intervals		p
Low	Low to medium	4,12	-0,40	8,63	0,10
	Medium	10,01	5,52	14,87	0,00
	Medium to high	18,07	13,12	23,03	0,00
Low to medium	Medium	5,90	1,51	10,29	0,01
	Medium to high	13,96	9,45	18,46	0,00
Medium	Medium to high	8,06	3,21	12,91	0,00

The SES of the children did play a role in the number of fears expressed by the children (see Table 51). From the highest to the lowest are the low SES South African children (M=33,95), the low to medium SES South African children (M=28,94), medium SES South African children (M=22,67) and lastly the medium to high SES South African children (M= 14,47) (see Table 49). No significant interaction effect was found for gender and SES (see Table 50).

4.3.2. Differences with regard to level of fear and SES

In Table 52 the mean and standard deviations for the level of fear which was expressed by the participants for each of the four SES levels is presented. The mean can be seen as an average level of fear out of a possible 240 points.

Table 52
The Means and Standard Deviations for the Level of Fear with Regard to Socio-Economic Status (SES)

SES	Mean	SD
Low	175,79	21,38
Low to medium	161,18	29,00
Medium	150,97	25,64
Medium to high	134,54	29,78
Grand mean	155,99	30,37

The following depicts the level of fear that the children experienced from the different SES. From the highest to lowest they were: low SES (M=175,79), low to medium (M=161,18), medium SES (M=150,97) and medium to high SES (M=134,54) (see Table 52).

A summarised version of the factorial MANOVA, which was completed to determine if the SES does play a role with respect to the level of fear expressed, is shown in Table 53.

Table 53
Summary of the Factorial MANOVA for the Level of Fear with Regard to Socio-Economic Status (SES)

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Differences	F	p
Between groups					
SES	3	69161,57	23053,86	38,31	0,00
Interaction effect	3	1348,45	449,48	0,75	0,53
Within groups	396	238295,85	601,76		

The F-value was significant (F [3, 396]=38,31, p< 0,01) (see Table 53) indicating that SES does play a role in the expression of fears. The Bonferonni intervals were computed to ascertain between which SES levels a significant difference was apparent. No significant interaction effects were found for gender and SES (see Table 53). Table 54 presents the Bonferonni confidence intervals.

Table 54
Pairwise Comparisons for the Level of Fear with Regard to Socio-Economic Status (SES)

SES (I)	SES(J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Bonferonni Intervals		F
Low	Low to medium	13,06	4,05	22,08	0,01
	Medium	22,65	12,95	32,35	0,00
	Medium to high	38,42	28,51	48,33	0,00
Low to medium	Medium	9,58	0,801	18,36	0,05
	Medium to high	25,36	16,36	34,36	0,00
Medium	Medium to high	15,77	6,08	25,47	0,00

The results indicate that SES did play a role on the level of fear experienced by children. A significant difference in the level of fear between all the four SES levels was found (see Table 54).

4.3.3. Differences with regard to pattern of fear and SES

The mean and standard deviations for each SES level with respect to each of the five factors is shown in Table 55.

Table 55
The Means and Standard Deviations for the Pattern of Fear with Regard to Socio-Economic Status (SES)

Dependant variable	SES	Mean	SD
Factor 1	Low	47,47	6,74
	Low to medium	43,83	8,61
	Medium	41,66	7,51
	Medium to high	39,47	9,92
	Total	43,13	8,74
Factor 2	Low	40,72	5,81
	Low to medium	36,48	8,46
	Medium	32,67	7,65
	Medium to high	28,33	7,12
	Total	34,69	8,61
Factor 3	Low	38,02	5,97
	Low to medium	34,55	7,13
	Medium	31,72	6,41
	Medium to high	27,10	6,47
	Total	32,97	7,57
Factor 4	Low	31,02	3,45
	Low to medium	29,56	6,01
	Medium	29,36	4,94
	Medium to high	26,01	6,28
	Total	29,04	5,63
Factor 5	Low	8,37	1,94
	Low to medium	6,77	2,18
	Medium	6,76	2,05
	Medium to high	5,96	2,14
	Total	6,93	2,24

Factor 1 (fear of failure and criticism), Factor 2 (fear of the unknown), Factor 3 (fear of injury and small animals), Factor 4 (fear of danger and death) and Factor 5 (medical fears).

As can be seen by the grand mean for the SES for each factor the order from highest to lowest was; factor 1 (43,13), factor 2 (34,69), factor 3 (32,97), factor 4 (29,04) and factor 5 (6,93) (see Table 55).

This same order was applicable to the individual SES levels with the highest average level of fear for each level being the low SES, followed by the low to medium SES, medium SES and medium to high SES. A more detailed depiction of these results is illustrated in Table 55.

The effect the SES has on the pattern of fear (five fear factors of the FSSC-R) and whether any significant differences were apparent, was also investigated by means of a factorial MANOVA. A summarised version of the factorial MANOVA for pattern of fear with regard to SES; SES and gender being the independent variables, is presented in Table 56.

Table 56
Summary of the Factorial MANOVA for Pattern of Fear with Regard to Socio-Econmic Status (SES)

Source	df	Wilk's Lambda	F	p
Between groups				
SES	15	0,62	13,84	0,00
Interaction effect	15	0,92	2,16	0,01
Within groups	1082,54			

The results indicated a significant multivariate Wilk's Lambda, transformed to an F-value (15, 1082,541)=13,84, $p<0,001$ (see Table 56). A significant interaction effect was found for SES and gender {F(15, 1082,541)=2,16, $p < 0,05$} (see Table 56).

Table 57 represents the pairwise comparisons for the pattern of fear which was computed in order to ascertain on which factors a significant difference was apparent.

Table 57
Tests of Between-SES and Interactions Effects for the Five Factors

Dependent variable	df	Sum of squares	Mean of squares	F	p
Factor 1					
SES	3	2563,60	854,54	13,30	0,00
Interaction effect	3	17,85	5,95	0,09	0,96
Error	396	25437,62	64,24		
Factor 2					
SES	3	6733,48	2244,50	48,29	0,00
Interaction effect	3	327,32	109,12	2,35	0,07
Error	396	18497,34	46,48		
Factor 3					
SES	3	4934,40	1644,80	48,47	0,00
Interaction effect	3	141,17	47,06	1,39	0,25
Error	396	13438,43	33,94		
Factor 4					
SES	3	979,74	326,58	12,34	0,00
Interaction Effect	3	54,20	18,07	0,68	0,56
Error	396	10480,58	26,47		
Factor 5					
SES	3	227,05	75,69	19,50	0,00
Interaction effect	3	39,30	13,10	3,74	0,02
Error	396	1537,26	3,88		

The pairwise comparison (see Table 57) showed a significant difference on all factors with respect to SES as the following: factor 1 [F(3, 396)=13,30; p<0,001}, factor 2 [F(3, 396)=48,29; p<0,001}, factor 3 {F(3, 396)=48,47; p<0,001], factor 4 [F(3, 396)=12,34; p< 0,001] and factor 5 [F(3, 396)=19,50; p<0,001] (see Table 57). The only significant difference apparent for the interaction effect was on factor 5 [F(3, 395)=3,374, p<0,05] (see Table 57).

To ascertain between which SES levels on each of the five factors there was a significant difference apparent the Bonferonni confidence intervals were computed. Table 58 presents the Bonferonni confidence intervals.

Table 58

Pairwise Comparisons for the Level of Fear on Each Factor with Regard to Socio-Economic Status (SES)

Dependant variable	SES(I)	SES(J)	Mean difference (I-J)		Bonferonni intervals	p
Factor 1	Low	Low to medium	3,30	0,36	6,25	0,02
		Medium	5,31	2,14	8,48	0,00
		Medium to high	7,34	4,10	10,57	0,00
	Low to medium	Medium	2,01	-0,86	4,88	0,38
		Medium to high	4,03	1,09	6,98	0,00
	Medium	Medium to high	2,02	-1,14	5,19	0,55
Factor 2	Low	Low to medium	3,85	1,35	6,36	0,00
		Medium	7,53	4,83	10,22	0,00
		Medium to high	11,76	9,01	14,52	0,00
	Low to medium	Medium	3,68	1,24	6,12	0,00
		Medium to high	7,91	5,41	10,42	0,00
	Medium	Medium to high	4,24	1,54	6,93	0,00
Factor 3	Low	Low to medium	3,03	0,89	5,17	0,00
		Medium	5,70	3,40	8,00	0,00
		Medium to high	10,16	7,81	12,52	0,00
	Low to medium	Medium	2,67	0,59	4,76	0,00
		Medium to high	7,14	5,00	9,28	0,00
	Medium	Medium to high	4,46	2,16	6,76	0,00
Factor 4	Low	Low to medium	1,30	-0,60	3,19	0,41
		Medium	1,42	-0,61	3,46	0,39
		Medium to high	4,55	2,48	6,63	0,00
	Low to medium	Medium	0,12	-1,72	1,97	1,00
		Medium to high	3,26	1,37	5,14	0,00
	Medium	Medium to high	3,13	1,10	5,16	0,00
Factor 5	Low	Low to medium	1,48	0,75	2,20	0,00
		Medium	1,41	0,63	2,19	0,00
		Medium to high	2,24	1,44	3,04	0,00
	Low to medium	Medium	-0,06	-0,77	0,64	1,00
		Medium to high	0,77	0,04	1,49	0,03
	Medium	Medium to high	0,83	0,05	1,61	0,03

Table 58 indicates that significant differences with respect to SES and the level of fear expressed on each level, were apparent among the five factors. Significant differences were apparent between the levels of fear expressed with respect to all the SES levels for factor 2 and factor 3. To a lesser degree significant differences were apparent for factor 5, factor 1 and lastly, factor 4.

5. DISCUSSION

The multi-assessment method which was implemented by utilising the FOM and the FSSC-R, were beneficial in obtaining data concerning the fears in a selected group of middle childhood children in the Stellenbosch area.

The content, number, level and pattern of fears expressed by a selected cross-cultural group of middle childhood South African children, were determined. Differences in the expressed fears were found with respect to culture, gender and SES, as well as the two measuring instruments administered.

Once again each independent variable; culture, gender and SES; is discussed in terms of each dependent variable. The order of the discussion of the dependent variables is as follows: content (ten most common fears), number, level (intensity of the fears) and pattern of fear. Due to the difference in structure of the FOM and FSSC-R, the FOM is discussed only in terms of content and number of fears whereas the FSSC-R is discussed in relation to content, number, level and pattern of fear. The SES is discussed only in terms of the FSSC-R and the results should be interpreted with caution, due to the fact that only SES and gender were used as independent variables. The reason for this is that when the three cultural groups where divided into SES levels, the sample sizes were too small to provide accurate results. No FOM results were obtained for the SES because previous research from Muris et al. (1997a, 1997b) was used as a guideline in this study and they did not make use of the FOM in such a manner.

5.1. CULTURE

5.1.1. Content

The FOM method was applied first to avoid the carry-over effect (Muris et al., 1997b). This concept of having the choice to mention any fear confused a few children. They often found it difficult to name fears without any prompting. This resulted in 12 children reporting that they experienced no fear at all (see Table 8). The FOM presented a opportunity to mention any fear without any limitations. This resulted in a broad domain of fears being expressed. They differed from those of the FSSC-R, which can be seen when comparing the ten most common fears derived from the two measuring instruments.

The fear of snakes was prominent in the FOM, which is in accordance with results from previous research (Muris et al., 1997a, 1997b, 2000). It is noteworthy to mention that it was the most common fear expressed by all three cultures (see Tables 4-7). These results correlate with a South African study by Martalas (1999), where the fear of snakes was found among the top fears of pre-primary children. This can be ascribed to a number of things, firstly that South Africa is known for its diverse snake population of which many are poisonous (Broadley, 1983), as well as that Stellenbosch is surrounded by hills and that snakes are a common occurrence especially during the summer months. Snakes also play a role in cultural beliefs and practices in South Africa (Mokgoatsana, 1999).

Other fears which featured quite strongly from the FOM and to a lesser degree from the FFSC-R were fears related to crime, weapons, thieves, gangs and bombing attacks-being invaded. This may be accredited to media reporting of a spree of bombing attacks over the last 18 months in the Western Cape, with particular reference to Cape-Town (Pienaar, 2 September 2000), an increase in violence, especially in Stellenbosch as well as gang activity around Stellenbosch and the Cape flats (Cloete, 23 March 2001; Fast Fact, April 2000). A general response to violence is the emotion of fear (McKendrick & Hoffman, 1990). As maintained by Rock (1997), all children are affected by violence and not only those who are present at the epicentre, which would be the black children in South Africa. This supports the above-mentioned findings of violence and crime-related fears among the three cultures. Furthermore, this places emphasis on the effect the macrosystem has on the development of the child, especially on the development of fears (Bronfenbrenner, 1986).

Developmental risks are incurred by growing up under conditions of violence. The impact that witnessing violence has on children depends on age and gender. The emotional and behavioural problems arising include emotional, cognitive and behavioural disturbances as well as school adjustments problems (Angless & Shefer 1997). Political violence which has been part of South African life for years is compounded by criminal and domestic violence which is prevalent in all areas (Dawes, 1990). Poor children are more subjected to sexual abuse, fractured and unstable families and alcohol abuse by parents (which in turn can lead to child abuse) (South-African Participatory Poverty Appraisal, 1997). The apartheid policy has left a legacy of severe disparities, resulting in the majority of South-African children, predominantly black children, being disadvantaged (Dawes & Donald, 1994). It becomes clear that children are exposed and vulnerable to violence of a wide spectrum.

It is interesting to take note of the fact that various researchers report that during middle childhood there is a tendency for fear of bodily injury or harm to decrease with an increase in scholastic fears (Gullone & King, 1992; Morris & Kratochwill, 1991; Ollendick et al., 1985; Reed et al., 1992). With regard to the present study, little of the above-mentioned was apparent in the content of fears. The fear of failing a test and getting poor grades were the only such fears apparent and these were prominent mainly among the white South African children. This may be ascribed to the notion that there is a higher emphasis on scholastic achievement among the white South African population as they more often have the funds available to support such an emphasis. The difference may possibly be attributed to the differences in the school environments, due to a still lingering disadvantage in the coloured and black South African schools. Poor teacher-pupil ratios, textbook shortages and inadequate teaching practices can all have an influence (Dawes & Donald, 1994). According to de Jong (2000) a large number of South African schools are in adverse environments and an approach to becoming more "learner friendly" needs to be adopted in order to generate an improved culture of teaching and learning. On a more positive note, many schools have already been successful, despite extremely adverse conditions. Van Zyl (quoted in Biersteker & Robinson, 2000) points out that school governing bodies have the right to decide school fee levels as well as to appoint and pay teachers from school funds collected by the school. The implication is that disadvantaged schools may still have a smaller budget at their disposal than more advantaged schools even taking into account the planned redistribution of public funds where it has taken place. It is important to know that in South Africa there are 12 million school children, 29 000 schools and 364 000 teachers (Financial and Fiscal Commission, quoted in Biersteker & Robinson, 2000).

The absence of school fears can also be contributed to a shift in competence. For a certain culture, school may not represent a competency area, resulting in fewer or no school related fears. Certain cultures could also be more at ease at school than others (Ogbu, 1981).

A cross-national comparison with regard to scholastic fears shows the following: Among the ten most common fears for the American, Australian, Chinese and Nigerian children was the fear of failing a test and getting poor grades, with the Chinese children reporting the most scholastic fears (Ollendick et al., 1996). In the present study the expressed fears were not as high as those expressed by the Chinese children (Ollendick et al., 1996). The Bedouin children in Israel feared failing a test with respect to scholastic fears (Elbedour et al., 1997).

The fear of bears or wolves among the ten most common fears for the coloured children may be attributed to the fact that they fear the unknown because bears or wolves are not a natural phenomenon in South Africa. The fear of ghosts may be ascribed to superstition among the black South African cultures being rife in South Africa (Laubscher, & Klinger, 1997; Magubane, 1998).

The majority of the overall ten most common fears as well as those for each culture for the FSSC-R, are similar to those found elsewhere (Ollendick, 1983; Ollendick et al., 1989, 1991, 1996; Muris et al., 2000a). Upon cross-sectional examination when looking at the individual cultures, at least five matches can be found. This is accordance with the statement that the content of fear is similar across different countries and cultures when the FSSC-R is applied. The same statement cannot however be applied to the FOM where there are far fewer similarities apparent.

Of the three mentioned items which match when the overall findings (see Table 4) are compared to the black South African children (see Table 5), white South African children (see Table 6) and coloured South African children (see Table 7), only one is found (snakes) among the fear rank order mentioned by Muris et al. (2000a). The fear rank order of the first ten fears according to recent research by Muris et al. (2000a) is shown in Table 59 with the percentage of the sample having chosen the specific fear also being illustrated.

Table 59
Fear Rank Order for Dutch Children Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM) according to Muris et al. (2000a)

Item	Percentage of sample
(1) Spiders	11,7
(2) Death/accident others	9,7
(3) Death/accident self	6,6
Being kidnapped	6,6
(5) The dark	6,2
(6) Burglar breaking into our house	5,9
(7) Home alone in the evening	5,2
(8) Thunderstorms	4,1
(9) Snakes	3,4
Frightening movies	3,4

The results of Table 5 (black South African children) were compared to those from Muris et al. (2000a) and only one match was found namely: snakes. The white South African children (see Table 6) showed five matches. They were the following: snakes, spiders, thieves, death and being

home alone. The coloured South African children (see Table 7) were compared and three matches were to be found: snakes, death or dead people and spiders.

Only two of the three matched items (not being able to breathe and being hit by a car or truck) are present in the majority of the ten most common fears found upon comparison of the overall findings (see Table 9), the black South African children (see Table 10), white South African children (see Table 11) and coloured South African children when the FSSC-R is used (see Table 12) (Muris et al., 2000a; Ollendick et al., 1991).

When comparing the ten most common fears with respect to the overall fears (All the three South African cultures) as well as the fears of the three South African cultures individually to the ten most common fears found by Muris et al. (1997a) in a Dutch sample using the FOM, various matches are found.

Table 60 shows the ten most common fears for the Dutch children present in an earlier study by Muris et al. (1997a).

Table 60
Fear Rank Order for the Dutch Children Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM) according to a study by Muris et al. (1997a)

Item	Percentage of sample
(1) Spiders	18,6
(2) Being kidnapped	7,8
(3) Predators	6,2
The dark	6,2
(5) Frightening movies	5,4
(6) Snakes	4,7
(7) Being hit by a car or truck	3,9
Being teased	3,9
Parents dying	3,9
(10) Burglar breaking into house	3,1

The overall ten most common fears of the three cultures yielded three matches to the above mentioned fears (see Table 4). These were: the fear of snakes, predators and spiders. The black South African children had only two matches, namely, snakes and predators (see Table 5). The white South African children had five matches, namely, snakes, spider, predators, thieves and being

home alone. The same three matches were found for the coloured South African children (see Table 7).

The ten most common fears found by Muris et al. (2000a) for the FSSC-R from the most often chosen to the least chosen fear are presented in Table 61.

Table 61
Fear Rank Order for the Dutch Children Based on the Results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R) according to Muris et al. (2000a)

Item	Percentage of sample
(1) Not being able to breathe	18,3
(2) Burglar breaking into our house	14,8
(3) Bombing attacks/being invaded	10,3
Falling from high places	10,3
(5) Death/dead people	10,0
(6) Getting lost in a strange place	9,7
(7) Being hit by a car or truck	8,6
(8) Getting a serious illness	7,6
(9) Fire/getting burned	6,2
(10) Spiders	4,1

Nine matching fears are found upon comparison of the above-mentioned fears and the fears found in Table 9 (overall). The fear that does not match is the fear of getting a shock from electricity.

The same comparison was applied to Table 10 (Black South African children) and five matches were found, namely, bombing attacks-being invaded, not being able to breathe, death or dead people, germs or getting a serious illness and being hit by a car or truck. Table 11 (White South African children) indicates seven matches as well. The three unmatched items are failing a test, getting poor grades and getting a shock from electricity. The matches present in Table 12 (Coloured South African children) are seven. The three items where no matches are found are: getting a shock from electricity, bears or wolves and earthquakes.

A study by Ollendick et al. (1991) where the pattern and intensity of fears in 327 British school children was explored was used for comparison because the ten most common fears displayed by the British children were similar to those found in Australian and American children (Ollendick et al., 1989). The ten most common fears as shown by Ollendick et al. (1991) in a comparable British study, from the most common downward, are shown in Table 62.

Table 62
Fear Rank Order for English Children Based on the Results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R) according to Ollendick et al. (1991)

Item	% children endorsing
(1) Being hit by a car	69,1
(2) Not being able to breathe	67,9
(3) Bomb attack	61,8
(4) Fire/burned	58,7
(5) Burglar	54,7
(6) Falling from a height	53,5
(7) Serious illness	50,3
(8) Earthquake	49,5
(9) Sent to head	41,6
(10) Death/dying	40,1

When these ten most common fears (Table 62) are compared to those of Table 9 (Overall), eight matches are found as well. The two items which are not matched are: getting lost in a strange place and getting a shock from electricity. One of the two fears is identical to the item that did not match with Muris et al. (2000a). The item in question is the fear of getting lost in a strange place.

Five matches are found when Table 10 (Black South African children) is compared with those items found by Ollendick et al. (1991). These five matches are identical to those found when the comparison was done by Muris et al. (2000a).

The comparison of Table 11 (White South African children) to Ollendick et al. (1991) yielded six matches. The four unmatched items were: failing a test, getting poor grades, getting a shock from electricity and being lost in a strange place. Three of the above-mentioned fears coincided with those that were unmatched by comparison to Muris et al. (2000a). These were: failing a test, getting poor grades and getting a shock from electricity.

Seven matches were found when comparing Table 12 (Coloured South African children) to previously mentioned items from Ollendick et al. (1991). The three unmatched items are: getting lost in a strange place, getting a shock from electricity and bears or wolves. Two of the three items are identical to those that did not match the Muris et al. (2000a) items. The two items are: getting a shock from electricity and bears or wolves.

5.1.2. Number of fears

Martalas (1999) interviewed 56 preschool children between the ages of 5 and 7, with a methodology similar to the FOM and found the average number of fears per participant to be 4,77. In the present research the number of fears per participant for the whole sample was 3,62. This is in accordance with the findings of previous research, namely that there is, with an increase in age, an age related decline in the number of fears that occur (Burnham & Gullone, 1997; Dong et al., 1995; Graziano et al, 1979; Gullone & King, 1992, 1997; King et al., 1989; Lapouse & Monk, 1959; Slee & Cross, 1989; Spence & McCathie, 1993).

The number of fears experienced by each culture when looking at the FOM results are as follows: the black South African children experienced the highest number of fears per participant (4,20), followed by the coloured South African children (3,94) and lastly the white South African children(2,52) (see Table 13). This same trend was revealed by the results of the FSSC-R (see Table 18).

The number of fears on the FSSC-R for the black culture (M=32,94) was the highest, followed by the coloured culture (M=26,71) and finally the white culture (M=16,07) (see Table 18). The number of fears in a study by Ollendick et al. (1996) using the FSSC-R were the highest for the Nigerian children (M=26,08), followed by the Chinese children (M=15,52), then the Australian children (M=14,29) and lastly the American children (M=13,60). In comparison with the above research the white South African children expressed fewer fears than the Nigerian children but for the other two cultures this does not hold true. A similar recent study was done by Ingman et al. (1999) where it was reported that Nigerian children (M=25,1) experienced more fears than Kenyan children (M=24,83). The fact that the coloured and black South African children express more fears than the white South African children may indicate that they share a common denominator. The white children are more exposed to a westernised culture, which may be a contributing factor to their experiencing fewer fears. The above is in agreement with the proposition by Ollendick et al. (1996) namely that it appears as if African countries stress more obedience, self-control, emotional restraint and compliance with social fears which results in more fears being expressed. This suggestion is further supported by Weisz, Sigman, Weiss and Mask (1993), who demonstrated that over-controlled problems are more displayed by Kenyan children and adolescents with fewer under-controlled problems than their American counterparts.

5.1.3. Level of fears

The level of fear experienced is the highest for the black South African children (M=173,70), then the coloured South African children (M= 157,64) and lastly the white South African children (M=137,39) (see Table 21). The level of fear for countries such as America (M=133,2), Australia (M=133,84) and China (M=133,79) was lower than the level found amongst the present sample with the exception of the Nigerian children (M=162,51) who experienced a level of fear in the same region as that of the present sample (Ollendick et al., 1996). The level of fear among Nigerian children (M=164,07) and Kenyan children (M=153,36) in a recent study by Ingman et al. (1999) depicted similar results with regard to the level of fear experienced.

It is interesting to notice that the level of fear for the Bedouin Israeli children (X= 135,77) and the Jewish Israeli children (X=98,53) was lower than those of the three cultures from the present sample. This can be attributed to cultural values or differences (Elbedour et al., 1997) and the way in which children within a specific culture understand the environment that they live in (Slee & Cross, 1989).

5.1.4. Pattern of fears

The level of fear was explored across all five factors by means of a MANOVA with the three cultures and gender as independent variables and fear as dependent variable in order to indicate if any significant differences with respect to the pattern of fear were apparent.

Cross-sectional comparisons for the overall South African children and the Australian children (King et al., 1989) yielded the following: As reported in Table 24, the South African children's order of the factors from highest to lowest average fear score is from factor1 through to factor 5. The Australian children had a different sequence (see Table 63). Their factor with the highest average total fear score was factor 3 (35,4), followed by factor 1 (31,7), factor 4(30,00), factor 2 (28,4) and factor 5(10,4) (see Table 63). It is worth noting that the South African children have a higher average total fear score for all factors except factor 5 (medical fears), which is lower than the Australian children's.

The overall factor order holds true for the individual South African cultures as well (see Table 24). When comparing the individual cultures, it can be seen that, consistent with the overall level of

fears and number of fears, the South African children have a higher average level of fear with regard to the five factors.

The level of fear for each of the five factors, displayed by children in a study by King et al. (1989), is shown in Table 63.

Table 63
Average Fear Total Score for Each Factor according to King et al. (1989)

	Total	8-10	11-13	14-16	Boy	Girl
Factor 1	31,7	31,6	32,0	31,4	30,2	33,1
Factor 2	28,4	29,9	28,1	26,8	25,9	30,6
Factor 3	35,4	36,8	35,0	34,2	32,0	38,6
Factor 4	30,0	31,3	30,2	28,2	28,4	31,5
Factor 5	10,4	10,5	10,3	10,4	9,7	11,1

As can be seen by comparison with Table 63, the South African cultures express a higher level of fear for factors 1 and 2. For factor 3 the black South African children expressed a higher level of fear than the Australian children while the white and coloured South African children expressed a lower level of fear. All South African cultures yielded similar results for factor 4. In comparison, the average level of fear is lower for all South African children with regard to factor 5.

Table 64 presents the level of fear for each of the five factors according to a study by Dong et al. (1994).

Table 64
Average Total Fear Score for Each Factor according to Dong et al. (1994)

	Total	7-10	11-13	14-17	Boy	Girl
Factor 1	41,45	39,41	43,80	41,43	40,46	42,46
Factor 2	28,04	28,52	28,90	26,27	26,21	29,93
Factor 3	26,86	26,83	27,69	25,86	23,97	29,82
Factor 4	24,31	24,19	25,19	23,38	22,69	25,98
Factor 5	5,73	5,57	5,86	5,82	5,39	6,09

The average fear rank order for the Chinese children (see Table 64) is identical to the one of the South African children and the individual cultures (see Table 24), the order being from the highest factor to the lowest factor; 1, 2,3,4 and 5. For factor 1 the Chinese children had an average level of fear which was closer to the fear level expressed by the cultures. For factor 2 the black and

fear which was closer to the fear level expressed by the cultures. For factor 2 the black and coloured South African children had higher scores whereas the white South African children displayed a score similar to that of the Chinese children. Factors 3, 4 and 5 for the South African cultures have higher levels of fear.

The above comparisons reveal differences which allow a deeper insight into various factors influencing fears in middle childhood.

5.2. GENDER

5.2.1. Content

The most common fears between genders for each culture are fairly similar for the black South African culture with seven matches between the boys and girls on the FOM (see Tables 32 & 33) and nine matches on the FSSC-R (see Tables 34 & 35). The white South African children had six matches on the FOM (see Tables 36 & 37) and 8 on the FSSC-R (see Tables 38 & 39). The coloured South African children had eight matches on the FOM (see Tables 40 & 41) and nine on the FSSC-R (see Tables 44 & 43).

Scholastic fears which should become prominent during middle childhood feature among the ten most common fears as follows. The black South African children expressed no scholastic fears (see Tables 32-35). The white South African children revealed the fear of tests on the FOM (see Table 6) and getting poor grades on the FSSC-R (see Table 11) to be among their top ten fears. The white South African boys feared tests on the FOM (see Table 36) and failing a test and getting poor grades from the FSSC-R (see Table 38). For the white South African girls failing a test on the FSSC-R was among their top fears (see Table 39). The coloured South African boys feared getting poor grades on the FSSC-R (see Table 42). A possible explanation for this could be once again that the white South African culture is more exposed to a westernised world than the other cultures (Ingman et al., 1999).

The content of the ten most common fears for the FSSC-R represent fears, which originate mainly from factor 5, danger and death. This also holds true for most of the ten most common fears for the boys and girls of each culture except for the black South African girls where factor 2, the unknown,

also features. This is also mirrored in the fact that of the ten most common fears for the black South African children, five came from factor 5 and three from factor 2, the unknown.

Muris et al. (1997a) investigated the ten most common fears overall, as well as for boys and girls separately, using the FOM and FSSC-R under similar conditions to those of the present study.

Table 65 displays the most feared items for the Dutch boys according to the results of the FOM.

Table 65
Fear Rank Order for the Dutch Boys Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM) according to Muris et al. (1997a)

Item	Percentage of sample
(1) Spiders	16,2
(2) Predators	9,5
(3) Being hit by a car or truck	6,8
Snakes	6,8
(5) Burglar breaking into our house	5,4
Frightening movies	5,4
The dark	5,4
(8) Being teased	4,1
Frightening dreams	4,1
Operations	4,1

The ten most common fears for the Dutch girls according to the results of the FOM are presented in Table 66.

Table 66
Fear Rank Order For the Dutch Girls Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM) according to Muris et al. (1997a)

Item	Percentage of sample
(1) Spiders	21,8
(2) Being kidnapped	14,5
(3) Parents dying	7,3
The dark	7,3
(5) Frightening movies	5,5
Thunderstorms	5,5
(7) Being teased	3,6
Bats	3,6
Ghosts and spooky things	3,6
Going to bed in the dark	3,6
Making mistakes	3,6

The ten most common fears, based on the results of the FSSC-R, for the Dutch boys are shown in Table 67.

Table 67
Fear Rank Order for the Dutch Boys Based on the Results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R) according to Muris et al. (1997a)

Item	Percentage of sample
(1) Not being able to breathe	63,5
(2) Bombing attacks-being invaded	56,8
(3) Getting a serious illness	54,1
(4) Being hit by a car or truck	45,9
(5) Fire-getting burned	35,1
(6) Burglar breaking into our house	32,4
(7) Getting lost in a strange	31,1
Falling from a high place	31,1
(9) Death or dead people	25,7
(10) Snakes	21,6

The most feared items for the Dutch girls according to the results of the FSSC-R are displayed in Table 68.

Table 68
Fear Rank Order for the Dutch Girls Based on the Results of the Fear Survey Schedule for Children Revised (FSSC-R) according to Muris et al. (1997a)

Item	Percentage of sample
(1) Not being able to breathe	74,5
(2) Being hit by a car or truck	65,5
(3) Getting a serious illness	63,6
(4) Bombing attacks or being invaded	58,2
Fire or getting burned	58,2
(6) Burglar breaking into house	52,7
Getting lost in a strange place	52,7
(8) Spiders	49,1
(9) Death or dead people	40,0
(10) Falling from a high place	36,4

Only a few matches are found for the **FOM**. All the **boys** reveal two matches; snakes (36,62%) and predators (18,78%) (see Table 28). Two matched items are revealed by all the **girls**: spiders (16,75%) and death (13,61%) (see Table 29).

The ten most common fears for the **boys** for all the three cultures together yielded eight matches for the **FSSC-R** (see Table 30). The unmatched items are: getting a shock from electricity (57,75%) and bears or wolves (49,77%). The **girls** displayed seven matches upon comparison (see Table 31). The unmatched items for them were: snakes (72,25%), getting a shock from electricity (70,68%) and guns (67,54%).

According to the results of the **FOM,** two matches are present for the **black South African boys**. These are: snakes(51,11%) and predators (33,33%) (see Table 32). No matches were found for the **girls** (see Table 33).

The **black South African boys** match in five fears on to the results of the **FSSC-R** (see Table 34). The fears that do not match are getting a shock from electricity, ghosts or spooky things, cemeteries, guns, nightmares and earthquakes. The **girls** also have six matches (see Table 3). Those that did not match are: snakes, guns, getting a shock from electricity, cemeteries and ghosts or spooky things.

According to the results of the **FOM**, four matches are found for the **white South African boys** (see Table 36) and one match is found for the **girls** (see Table 37). The four matched items for the **boys** are: snakes (15,63%), predators (7,81%), thieves (4,69%) and darkness (4,69%). The matched item for the **girls** is the fear of spiders (26,67%).

For the results of the **FSSC-R**, among the **white South African children** seven matches are found for the **boys** as well as the **girls** (see Tables 38 & 39). The unmatched items for the **boys** are: failing a test (50,00%), getting a shock from electricity (16,88%) and getting poor grades (39,06%). For the **girls** these items are: getting poor grades (64,44%), snakes (60,00%) and failing a test (55,56%).

According to the results of the **FOM**, three matches for the **coloured South African boys**, as well as three matches for the **girls**, are found (see Tables 40 & 41). The three items that are consistent for the **boys** are: predators (19,23%), snakes (43,27%) and spiders (8,65%). Death or dead people (20,00%), ghosts (18,95%), and spiders (12,63%) are the matching items for the **girls**.

Looking at the **coloured South African children** and the results for the **boys** (see Table 42) and **girls** (see Table 43) using the **FSSC-R**, one finds eight matches and six matches respectively. The

items that did not correspond for the **boys** are, bears or wolves (56,73%) and getting a shock from electricity (56,73%), earthquakes (50,00%), getting poor grades (49,04%) and guns (49,04%).The unmatched items for the **girls** were: a burglar breaking into our house (76,84%), earthquakes (72,63%), getting a shock from electricity (71,58%) and bears or wolves (70,53%).

The vast difference could be due to the different environments from which the children come which is further enhanced by the FOM placing no constraints on the type of fears the children are allowed to mention. Thus the answers truly represent their understanding of the context they live in. Caution must however be taken with interpretation of the comparison with Muris et al. (1997b) because in the latter case the FOM was applied to one half of the sample before the application of the FSSC-R and the remaining half after the FSSC-R was applied. The order of application is thus slightly different to the one used in the present study, which could have had an effect on the outcome due to contamination of the latter half of the Dutch sample.

In another study by Muris et al. (1997b) children's fears were explored by means of the FOM and the FSSC-R. The FOM was administered after the FSSC-R thus the results could have been influenced due to the carry-over effect. The following ten most common fears for the boys and girls, based on the results of the FOM (see Tables 69 & 70), were found.

Table 69
Fear Rank Order for the Dutch Boys Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM) according to Muris et al. (1997b)

Item	Percentage of sample
(1) Death	11,4
(2) War	10,3
(3) Spiders	8,7
(4) Illness	7,1
(5) Snakes	4,9
(6) Frightening movies	3,8
(7) Burglars	3,3
(8) The dark	2,7
Not being able to breathe	2,7
Ghosts	2,7

Table 70
Fear Rank Order for the Dutch Girls Based on the Results of the Free Option Method (FOM) according to Muris et al. (1997b)

Item	Percentage of sample
(1) Spiders	11,4
(2) The dark	7,6
(3) Death	7,1
(4) War	5,7
(5) Sharks	4,3
Having my parents argue	4,3
Burglars	4,3
(8) Illness	3,8
Snakes	3,8
(10) Not being able to breathe	3,3

The matched items for the **boys of all three cultures** are: snakes (36,62%) and death (13,62%) (see Table 28). The **girls** (overall) displayed three matches; snakes (55,50%), spiders (16,75%) and death (13,61%) (see Table 29).

The fear of snakes (51,11%) is the only matched item for the **black South African boys** (see Table 32), which incidentally is the same for the **girls** (68,63%) (see Table 33). The **white South African boys** (see Table 36) have three matches and the **girls** have five matches (see Table 37). For the **boys** these are: snakes (15,63%), thieves (4,69%) and darkness (4,69%). The five matches for the **girls** are: snakes (37,78%), spiders (26,67%), thieves (13,33%), illness (11,11%) and sharks (8,99%). Four matches are present among the **coloured South African boys** (see Table 40), these being; snakes (43,27%), death or dead people (18,77%), spiders (8,65%), and ghosts (6,75%). The **girls** have three matches (see Table 41); snakes (56,84%), death or dead people (20,00%) and spiders (12,63%).

The above-mentioned comparisons indicate to which extent the findings among the different cultures in South Africa correlate with those done elsewhere as well as the differences among the percentages of the sample endorsing those items.

The ten most common fears, which are derived from the results of the FOM reflect a content from mainly the categories of crime or violence, wild animals and other for the overall fears in all three South African cultures. The black South African children's ten most common fears mainly represent the categories of wild animals and crime or violence, where as for the white South African

children the fears are more divided among the categories with wild animals, crime or violence and other featuring. The coloured South African children's fears are mainly concerned with crime or violence and wild animals (Addenda B-E; see Tables 14-17).

The content of the ten most common fears for the boys and girls of the three cultures reflects the above-mentioned categories. The black South African boys mainly fear wild animals and the girls fear wild animals as well as crime and violence. The white South African boys fear the categories of other, wild animals, real people and crime or violence. The girls fear crime or violence, wild animals and dark or night. The white South African children have fairly distributed fears and this is also found among the ten most common fears overall. The coloured South African boys fear crime or violence and wild animals, which are incidentally the same categories present for the girls (Addenda B-E; Tables 14-17).

5.2.2. Number of fears

Gender differences are present with regard to the number of fears being present, with the girls (M=32,24) expressing more fears than the boys (M=19,12) (see Table 18). This is consistent with previous findings (Dong et al., 1994; Elbedour et al., 1997; Graziano et al.; 1979; King et al., 1989; Lapouse & Monk, 1959; Ollendick et al., 1985, 1989, 1991; Scherer & Nakamura 1968; Slee & Cross, 1989; Spence & McCathie, 1993). In a study by Ollendick et al. (1996) girls expressed more fears than boys except for the Nigerian children where the boys (M=26,34) expressed more fears than the girls (M=25,82). The American girls (M=17) expressed more fears than the boys (M=10,29). The Australian girls (M=17,53) also expressed more fears than the boys (M=11,04) and the Chinese girls (M=18,32) also had more fears than the boys (M=12,73). It can be seen by the above that the number of fears for the South African children is quite high but that the Nigerian children also express higher numbers of fears. This trend of a higher number of fears and girls experiencing more fears than boys can be found among all three cultures of the study. This difference may however be attributed to gender role stereotyping, which is still a strong phenomena in South Africa, especially among certain cultures (Bozalek, 1997).

5.2.3. Level of fears

Differences in level of fear are consistent with the differences between boys and girls with respect to number of fears, the girls (M=169,28), displaying a higher level of fear than the boys (M=144,08)

(see Table 21). The same trend was seen among American girls (M=141,08) and boys (M=125,32), Australian girls (M=143,77) and boys (M=123,92) and Chinese girls (M=141,61) and boys (M=125,98). The exception was with the Nigerian children where the boys (M=163,85) displayed a higher level of fear than the girls (M=161,17) (Ollendick et al., 1996).

5.2.4. Pattern of fears

Differences were found between the boys and girls for all the five-factor scales of the FSSC-R.

The fear rank order with respect to gender is the same as for the total sample and the individual cultures (see Table 24), with girls consistently revealing a higher average level of fear than the boys.

The average level of the fear rank order of the Australian children for the factors was not the same as the order for the overall sample factor 3,1,4,2 and 5 (see Table 63). Interesting to notice is that for factors 1,2 and 4 the South African boys and girls revealed a higher level of fear. For factor 3 and 5 their scores were lower than those of the Australian children (King et al., 1989).

The pattern of the fear rank order for the Chinese boys and girls is the same as for the South African children, namely; from factor 1 to 5 (Dong et al., 1994). Upon further comparison it becomes apparent that the South African children revealed a higher level of fear for all the factors than the Chinese boys and girls, this being consistent with the finding of South African children scoring higher generally (see Table 64).

5.3. SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS (SES)

The problems which arose due to the sample size being insufficient to provide reliable results when the three cultural groups were divided into SES levels, are the reason why only SES and gender were used as independent variables in the statistical analysis. As such, very little can be derived from the results because the focus of the present study is culture, which was not entered into the statistical equation. Furthermore the results can be seen only as tentative guidelines. Significant differences were found in the number of fears expressed by the children of different SES (see Tables 50 & 51). The same is true for the level of fear (see Tables 53 & 54) experienced as well as pattern of fear (see Tables 56-58).

5.4. SHORTCOMINGS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

Certain shortcomings of the present study need to be acknowledged.

One problem area was the fact that although the FSSC-R has proven reliability and validity (Ollendick, 1983), it is not standarised for the South African population. Children struggled with American concepts of expression despite the language used being fairly easy.

Although preventative measures were taken by providing individual assistance during testing, the possibility exists that the degree of difficulty of the questionnaires was too high for the younger children, as well as for the more disadvantaged children.

Research assistants were used, which could have had an influence on the outcome of the study with respect to the data collection.

The following was done in order to address the problems:

- The research assistants were selected and trained by the researcher before the commencement of the present study. The requirements of being in the possession of an honours degree in Psychology as well as displaying cross-cultural sensitivity and experience with children, had to be complied with by the research assistants.

- Individual assistance was provided by the researcher with respect to the translation of the terms.

- A multi-assessment method was implemented by means of the FOM and FSSC-R for the purpose of addressing any problems experienced due to the contextual bias of the FSSC-R. The FOM was administered to obtain the children's own version of what they fear.

Similar problems to the above-mentioned ones were also experienced by Van Eeden (1989), highlighting their importance.

6. CONCLUSION

This study was undertaken to make a contribution to the existing body of knowledge regarding the content, number, level and pattern of fear with respect to culture, gender and SES.

Weisz and his colleagues demonstrated that cultures such as those in Africa and Asia which stress self-control, emotional restraint and inhibition, reveal significant overcontrolled problems such as shyness and fear in their youth (Weisz et al., 1993; Weisz, Suwanlert, Chaiyasit, Weiss, Achenbach, & Trevanthan, 1989; Weisz, Suwanlert, Chaiyasit, Weiss, Walter, & Anderson, 1988). This can be taken a step further by saying that the children of the respective countries may experience higher numbers or levels of socio-evaluative fears and safety fears than their American and Australian counterparts. This is consistent with the cross-cultural hypothesis suggested by Ollendick et al. (1996). Furthermore the above-mentioned seems to give explanations for the findings of this research.

It is known that in South Africa the majority of the children are grossly disadvantaged and that these children are mainly black South African children (Dawes & Donald, 1994). A Cape Town study conducted among 60 children in a children's home situated in a part of a township known as Khayelitsha revealed high levels of community violence, 95 % of children had witnessed violence and 56% of the children experienced violence themselves (Ensink, Robertson, Zissis, & Leger, 1997). This information indicates that children are exposed and vulnerable to a wide spectrum of violence. Furthermore the context in which most disadvantaged children live is marked by violence, poverty, family disintegration, personal deprivation and substandard living conditions (Dawes & Donald, 1994). The results are consistent with this because the black South African children expressed more fears with respect to content, number, level and pattern of fear than the other cultures. The fear of crime was also expressed among the ten most common fears by the children of all three cultures.

The most feared item for all three cultures with respect to the results of the FOM, was the fear of snakes. Furthermore, the fear of crime or crime related aspects featured among the top five fears for all three cultures as well (see Tables 5-7). The most feared item for all three cultures based on the results of the FSSC-R differed. The black South African children feared bombing attacks or being invaded most (see Table 10). The white South African children were most afraid of not being able to breathe (see Table 11) and the coloured South African children feared falling from high places

most (see Table 12). Crime related fears were present among the five most feared items, but only for the black and white South African children (see Tables 10-12). Although crime related fears were not present among the top five feared items for the coloured South African children, they were present among the ten most common fears. The greatest number of fears (see Tables 13-20) as well as the highest level of fear was (see Tables 21-23) experienced by the black South African children, followed by the coloured South African children. The lowest number as well as level of fear was reported by the white South African children. An important finding was that the number and level of fears for the South African children was generally higher than reported elsewhere in the world (Ingman et al., 1999; Ollendick et al., 1996). The pattern of fear was similar for all three cultural groups. The order of the pattern of fear was from factor 1 through to factor 5 with factor 1 having the highest level of fear and factor 5 the lowest level of fear (see Table 24). The pattern of fear for Chinese children in a study by Dong et al. (1994), was similar to that of the South African children.

Similarities were found regarding the content of fears for the FSSC-R. These were apparent upon comparison with other studies, the implication being that certain fears are universal as previously suggested (Fonseca et al., 1994; Ollendick, 1983). This suggestion is discredited by the results of the FOM where similarities were sparse. Since the methodology regarding the FOM method has varied among studies, it could be a contributing factor to the differences observed.

Gender differences across the board were consistent, with respect to all the dimensions of the FOM and FSSC-R. The ten most common fears based on the results of the FOM for the boys and girls of each culture did not differ markedly (see Tables 32, 33,36,37,40 & 41). The same can be said with respect to the ten most common fears according to the FSSC-R results (see Tables 34, 35, 38, 39, 42 & 43). Girls expressed a greater number of fears than boys according to the results of both the FOM (see Table 44) and the FSSC-R (see Tables 45 & 46). A higher level of fear was also experienced by the girls on all of the five factors (see Tables 46-58).

Children from lower SES homes displayed more fears (see Tables 49-51) and a higher level of fears (see Tables 51-54) than children from higher SES homes. The level of fear was the highest on each of the five factors for the children from the lower SES homes. The order of the level of fear on each factor according to SES level was the same, namely from highest to lowest; low, low to medium, medium and medium to high (see Tables 55-58). The sample size was insufficient to provide reliable results when the three cultural groups were divided into SES levels. Therefore the results regarding SES should only be seen as tentative guidelines.

It is noteworthy to mention that these cross-cultural findings are plagued by the same issues as other cross-cultural studies. The possibility exists that the results could be attributed to differences in response style as well as interpretation of the fear stimuli (Ollendick et al., 1996). To a certain degree, however, this could be ruled out according to the suggestion of Weisz et al. (1993, p.108) that, " the actual and the perceived are to a certain extent, inseparably interwoven" in the responses obtained from all participants. This issue could be further addressed by making use of multiple informants in future research to arrive at a more complete picture regarding children's fears across different cultures.

The problems experienced as well as the findings point out a need to develop South African fear survey schedule. Strong emphasis is placed by the researcher on the development of emic assessment tools as opposed to imposed etic assessment tools, which were used in the study implementing the FSSC-R. This same suggestion was voiced by Gullone (2000). The cognitive parameters which are tapped into by the FOM as well as the FFSC-R were also questioned by the researcher.

The findings further suggest that although the cultures are not identical, similarities in overall values and beliefs with respect to child rearing which place emphasis on compliance with society rules, obedience and politeness in their children are apparent because the participants experienced a higher number and level of fear than their American, Australian, British, Chinese, Kenyan and Nigerian counterparts (Ingman et al., 1999; Ollendick 1983; Ollendick et al., 1991, 1996).

The differences in socio-economic conditions among the cultures as well as in comparison with the American or Australian children might contribute to overall higher levels of stress and resultant fears. Further research is however needed to clarify this relationship.

The information revealed by this study contributes to a better psychological understanding of middle childhood children and could be implemented in the design of preventative programmes. Preventative programmes are most effective if they are undertaken at multiple levels (Dawes & Donald, 2000). Programmes focusing on the school and the family, which represent the microsystem of the child (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1986), would be appropriate. Furthermore, children would be empowered by addressing their fears. The need for effective prevention is indisputable, since there is considerable evidence to suggest that the onset of many adult

psychological problems can be traced back to childhood, even more so in the case of anxiety disorders (Mattison, 1992; Öst, 1987; Shore & Rapport, 1998).

In conclusion it can be said that much is to be gained from a better understanding of the world as seen through the eyes of a child. This is further emphasised by Oliver Tambo who said "the children of any nation are its future. A country, a movement, a people that does not value its youth and children does not deserve its future (quoted in Robinson & Biersteker, 1997, p. 1)."

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ADDENDUM A

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Verwysing
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PROVINSIALE ADMINISTRASIE WES-KAAP
Onderwysdepartement
PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION WESTERN CA
Education Department
ULAWULO LWEPHONDO LENTSHONA KOLO
ISebe leMfundo

Dear Ms Burkhardt
Fax: 8865773

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: Fears in a selected group of middle childhood South African children: A cross-cultural study

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in the Western Cape Schools has been approved subject to the following conditions.

- Principals, teachers and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
- Principals, teachers, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
- You make all arrangements concerning your investigation.
- Your work should not disrupt the functioning of the school during school hours.
- The investigation is not conducted during the fourth school term.
- There are no financial implications for the Western Cape Education Department.
- A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal of each school where the intended research is to be conducted.
- A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Curriculum Management (Research Section).
- The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

  The Director: Curriculum Management
  (Research Section)
  Western Cape Education Department
  Private Bag 9114
  CAPE TOWN 8000

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards

fp

HEAD: EDUCATION
DATE: 31 August 2000

ADDENDUM B

The categories and number of fears for all the South African children and gender are presented in detail below.

Categories	No. of fears for all children		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Wild animals			
Aaron	0	1	1
Bat	1	1	2
Bear	6	7	13
Crocodile	18	16	34
Elephant, hippopotamus or buffalo	3	8	11
Lizard	7	21	28
Monkey or baboon	7	8	15
Porcupine	0	1	1
Predator (i.e. lion and tiger)	40	52	92
Owl, eagle or vulture	6	2	8
Rat or mice	7	16	23
Snake	78	106	184
Wolf	4	5	9
Wild animal (unspecified)	12	6	18
Zebra or Donkey	0	1	1
Subtotal	189	251	440
Domestic animals			
Bull or cow	2	4	6
Dog	16	27	43
Cat	8	17	25
Horses	1	2	3
Goat	0	1	1
Pig	1	2	3
Subtotal	28	53	81
Insects			
Chameleon	5	7	12
Cockroaches	0	1	1
Insects (unspecified)	8	15	23
Lice	0	2	2
Scorpion	1	3	4
Spider	15	32	47
Wasp or bee	4	9	13
Subtotal	33	69	102

Categories	No. of fears for black children		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Sea or water animals			
Crabs	0	1	1
Dolphin or whale	0	5	5
Shark	19	14	33
Fish	1	2	3
Frog	0	2	2
Subtotal	20	24	44
Fantasy animals			
Dragon	3	2	5
King Kong or Warewolf	2	0	2
Lochness	1	0	1
Subtotal	6	2	8
Real people			
Aunts or uncle	1	0	1
Friend	4	2	6
Girls	3	0	3
Grandparent	3	1	4
Hooligan or beggar	12	7	19
Parent	11	7	18
Stranger	6	16	22
Soldier	4	10	14
Taxi driver	3	4	7
Teacher	9	7	16
Subtotal	56	54	110
Darkness or night or bad dreams			
Alone at home	3	14	17
Darkness	8	12	20
Dreams or nightmares	2	1	3
Unaccompanied on excursions	7	18	25
Subtotal	20	45	65
Natural phenomena			
Earthquake	0	2	2
Fire	1	3	4
Flood	0	3	3
Thunderstorm or tornado	1	5	6
Subtotal	2	13	15

Categories	No. of fears for black children		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Illness or medical			
Blood	0	3	3
Dentist or doctor	1	3	4
Hospital	2	3	5
Illness	4	18	22
Injection	1	3	4
Subtotal	8	30	38
Fantasy people			
Devil	2	4	6
Ghost	12	20	32
Satan or hell	1	2	3
Skeleton	0	4	4
Tokoloshe	4	3	7
Subtotal	19	33	52
School			
Achievement sport or academic	2	0	2
School (specified)	15	14	29
School (unspecified)	3	3	6
Subtotal	20	17	37
Crime or violence			
Bomb	4	5	9
Crime (unspecified)	16	41	57
Dangerous things	1	2	3
Gangs	27	24	51
Kidnapping or blackmail	3	8	11
Rape	1	17	18
Shooting	8	10	18
Thief	7	13	20
War	4	3	7
Weapon (i.e. gun, knife)	42	48	90
Subtotal	113	171	284
Other			
Accidents	4	3	7
Berating or punishment	5	6	11
Cemetery	3	1	4
Cricket ball	1	0	1
Cruel or horror movies	1	0	1
Death or dead people	29	26	55
Departure or divorce of parents	0	1	1

Categories	No. of fears for black children		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Fear of heights	4	5	9
Fighting	0	1	1
Hard work	1	0	1
Immigration or travelling	0	2	2
Loss of family	2	3	5
Mountain or cave	2	2	4
Narcotics	0	3	3
Roller-coaster	1	0	1
Shops	2	0	2
Stress	1	0	1
Small places	1	1	2
Transport	17	27	44
The unexpected	3	6	9
To be lost	4	6	10
Tunnels	0	2	2
Water, to drown	3	6	9
Subtotal	85	101	186
Total	**599**	**863**	**1462**

ADDENDUM C

The Categories and number of fears for black South African children and gender are presented in detail.

Categories	No. of fears for black children		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Wild animals			
Aaron	0	0	0
Bat	0	0	0
Bear	1	1	2
Crocodile	12	10	22
Elephant, hippopotamus or buffalo	1	3	4
Lizard	5	11	16
Monkey or baboon	6	7	13
Porcupine	0	0	0
Predator (i.e. lion and tiger)	15	24	39
Owl, eagle or vulture	1	0	1
Rat or mice	0	0	0
Snake	23	35	58
Wolf	0	0	0
Wild animal (unspecified)	1	0	1
Zebra or Donkey	0	1	1
Subtotal	65	92	157
Domestic animals			
Bull or cow	1	1	2
Dog	6	12	18
Cat	6	7	13
Horses	0	0	0
Goat	0	1	1
Pig	0	0	0
Subtotal	13	21	34
Insects			
Chameleon	1	1	2
Cockroaches	0	0	0
Insects (unspecified)	6	9	15
Lice	0	0	0
Scorpion	0	0	0
Spider	4	8	12
Wasp or bee	0	3	3
Subtotal	11	21	32

Categories	No. of fears for black children		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Sea or water animals			
Crabs	0	0	0
Dolphin or whale	0	0	0
Shark	2	5	7
Fish	0	1	1
Frog	0	2	2
Subtotal	2	8	10
Fantasy animals			
Dragon	1	1	2
King Kong or Warewolf	0	0	0
Lochness	0	0	0
Subtotal	1	1	2
Real people			
Aunts or uncle	0	0	0
Friend	0	0	0
Girl	0	0	0
Grandparent	0	0	0
Hooligan or beggar	2	0	2
Parent	1	0	1
Stranger	0	0	0
Soldier	4	9	13
Taxi driver	3	4	7
Teacher	1	0	1
Subtotal	11	13	24
Darkness or night or bad dreams			
Alone at home	0	0	0
Darkness	0	0	0
Dreams or nightmares	0	0	0
Unaccompanied on excursions	0	0	0
Subtotal	0	0	0
Natural phenomena			
Earthquake	0	0	0
Fire	1	2	3
Flood	0	0	0
Thunderstorm or tornado	1	0	1
Subtotal	2	2	4

Categories	No. of fears for black children		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Illness or medical			
Blood	0	2	2
Dentist or doctor	0	0	0
Hospital	1	0	1
Illness	2	7	9
Injection	0	1	1
Subtotal	3	10	13
Fantasy people			
Devil	0	0	0
Ghost	4	0	4
Satan or hell	0	0	0
Skeleton	0	4	4
Tokoloshe	0	3	3
Subtotal	4	7	11
School			
Achievement sport or academic	1	0	1
School (specified)	2	0	2
School (unspecified)	0	1	1
Subtotal	3	1	4
Crime or violence			
Bomb	1	2	3
Crime (unspecified)	3	11	14
Dangerous things	0	0	0
Gangs	7	13	20
Kidnapping or blackmail	0	0	0
Rape	0	0	0
Shooting	1	1	2
Thief	1	4	5
War	0	0	0
Weapon (i.e. gun, knife)	13	24	37
Subtotal	26	55	81
Other			
Accidents	0	0	0
Berating or punishment	0	0	0
Cemetery	1	0	1
Cricket ball	0	0	0
Cruel or horror movies	0	0	0
Death or dead people	4	4	8
Departure or divorce of parents	0	0	0

Categories	No. of fears for black children		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Fear of heights	1	0	1
Fighting	0	0	0
Hard work	0	0	0
Immigration or travelling	0	0	0
Loss of family	0	0	0
Mountain or cave	0	0	0
Narcotics	0	0	0
Roller-coaster	1	0	1
Shops	0	0	0
Stress	0	0	0
Small places	0	0	0
Transport	3	14	17
The unexpected	0	0	0
To be lost	1	1	2
Tunnels	0	0	0
Water, to drown	0	1	1
Subtotal	14	24	38
Total	**152**	**251**	**403**

ADDENDUM D

The categories and number of fears for the white South African children and gender are given in detail below.

Categories	No. of fears for white children		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Wild animals			
Aaron	0	0	0
Bat	0	0	0
Bear	0	1	1
Crocodile	1	2	3
Elephant, hippopotamus or buffalo	0	2	2
Lizard	0	1	1
Monkey or baboon	1	1	2
Porcupine	0	0	0
Predator (i.e. lion and tiger)	5	6	11
Owl, eagle or vulture	0	1	1
Rat or mice	2	2	4
Snake	10	17	27
Wolf	1	1	2
Wild animal (unspecified)	4	1	5
Zebra or Donkey	0	0	0
Subtotal	24	35	59
Domestic animals			
Bull or cow	0	0	0
Dog	0	3	3
Cat	0	1	1
Horses	0	0	0
Goat	0	0	0
Pig	0	0	0
Subtotal	0	4	4
Insects			
Chameleon	0	2	2
Cockroaches	0	1	1
Insects (unspecified)	1	3	4
Lice	0	0	0
Scorpion	0	2	2
Spider	2	12	14
Wasp or bee	2	0	2
Subtotal	5	20	25

Categories	No. of fears for black children		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Sea or water animals			
Crabs	0	0	0
Dolphin or whale	0	0	0
Shark	13	4	17
Fish	1	0	1
Frog	0	0	0
Subtotal	14	4	18
Fantasy animals			
Dragon	2	1	3
King Kong or Warewolf	2	0	2
Lochness	1	0	1
Subtotal	5	1	6
Real people			
Aunts or uncle	0	0	0
Friend	3	1	4
Girls	3	0	3
Grandparent	0	0	0
Hooligan or beggar	8	1	9
Parent	1	0	1
Stranger	2	2	4
Soldier	0	0	0
Taxi driver	0	0	0
Teacher	1	1	2
Subtotal	18	5	23
Darkness or night or bad dreams			
Alone at home	2	7	9
Darkness	3	3	6
Dreams or nightmares	0	0	0
Unaccompanied on excursions	1	6	7
Subtotal	6	16	22
Natural phenomena			
Earthquake	0	0	0
Fire	0	0	0
Flood	0	0	0
Thunderstorm or tornado	0	2	2
Subtotal	0	2	2

Categories	No. of fears for black children		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Illness or medical			
Blood	0	0	0
Dentist or doctor	0	2	2
Hospital	0	2	2
Illness	1	5	6
Injection	0	1	1
Subtotal	1	10	11
Fantasy people			
Devil	1	1	2
Ghost	1	2	3
Satan or hell	1	1	2
Skeleton	0	0	0
Tokoloshe	1	0	1
Subtotal	4	4	8
School			
Achievement sport or academic	1	0	1
School (specified)	6	3	9
School (unspecified)	0	0	0
Subtotal	7	3	10
Crime or violence			
Bomb	2	2	4
Crime (unspecified)	4	9	13
Dangerous things	0	0	0
Gangs	3	1	4
Kidnapping or blackmail	0	2	2
Rape	0	3	3
Shooting	0	0	0
Thief	3	6	9
War	1	0	1
Weapon (i.e. gun, knife)	0	0	0
Subtotal	13	23	36
Other			
Accidents	2	1	3
Berating or punishment	2	0	2
Cemetery	0	0	0
Cricket ball	1	0	1
Cruel or horror movies	1	0	1
Death or dead people	6	3	9
Departure or divorce of parents	0	0	0

Categories	No. of fears for black children		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Fear of heights	0	2	2
Fighting	0	0	0
Hard work	0	0	0
Immigration or travelling	0	1	1
Loss of family	2	1	3
Mountain or cave	0	0	0
Narcotics	0	3	3
Roller-coaster	0	0	0
Shops	0	0	0
Stress	1	0	1
Small places	1	1	2
Transport	9	4	13
The unexpected	2	1	3
To be lost	1	1	2
Tunnels	0	0	0
Water, to drown	2	2	4
Subtotal	31	20	51
Total	**128**	**147**	**275**

ADDENDUM E

The categories and number of fears for the coloured South African children and gender are given in detail below.

Categories	No. of fears for coloured children		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Wild animals			
Aaron	0	1	1
Bat	1	1	2
Bear	5	5	10
Crocodile	5	4	9
Elephant, hippopotamus or buffalo	2	3	5
Lizard	2	9	11
Monkey or baboon	0	0	0
Porcupine	0	1	1
Predator (i.e. lion and tiger)	20	22	42
Owl, eagle or vulture	5	1	6
Rat or mice	5	14	19
Snake	45	54	99
Wolf	3	4	7
Wild animal (unspecified)	7	5	12
Zebra or Donkey	0	0	0
Subtotal	100	124	224
Domestic animals			
Bull or cow	1	3	4
Dog	10	12	22
Cat	2	9	11
Horses	1	2	3
Goat	0	0	0
Pig	1	2	3
Subtotal	15	28	43
Insects			
Chameleon	4	4	8
Cockroaches	0	0	0
Insects (unspecified)	1	3	4
Lice	0	2	2
Scorpion	1	1	2
Spider	9	12	21
Wasp or bee	2	6	8
Subtotal	17	28	45

Categories	No. of fears for black children		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Sea or water animals			
Crabs	0	1	1
Dolphin or whale	0	5	5
Shark	4	5	9
Fish	0	1	1
Frog	0	0	0
Subtotal	4	12	16
Fantasy animals			
Dragon	0	0	0
King Kong or Warewolf	0	0	0
Lochness	0	0	0
Subtotal	0	0	0
Real people			
Aunts or uncle	1	0	1
Friend	1	1	2
Girl	0	0	0
Grandparent	3	1	4
Hooligan or beggar	2	6	8
Parent	9	7	16
Stranger	4	14	18
Soldier	0	1	1
Taxi driver	0	0	0
Teacher	7	6	13
Subtotal	27	36	63
Darkness or night or bad dreams			
Alone at home	1	7	8
Darkness	5	9	14
Dreams or nightmares	2	1	3
Unaccompanied on excursions	6	12	18
Subtotal	14	29	43
Natural phenomena			
Earthquake	0	2	2
Fire	0	1	1
Flood	0	3	3
Thunderstorm or tornado	0	3	3
Subtotal	0	9	9

Categories	No. of fears for black children		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Illness or medical			
Blood	0	1	1
Dentist or doctor	1	1	2
Hospital	1	1	2
Illness	1	6	7
Injection	1	1	2
Subtotal	4	10	14
Fantasy people			
Devil	1	3	4
Ghost	7	18	25
Satan or hell	0	1	1
Skeleton	0	0	0
Tokoloshe	3	0	3
Subtotal	11	22	33
School			
Achievement sport or academic	0	0	0
School (specified)	7	11	18
School (unspecified)	3	2	5
Subtotal	10	13	23
Crime or violence			
Bomb	1	1	2
Crime (unspecified)	9	21	30
Dangerous things	1	2	3
Gangs	17	10	27
Kidnapping or blackmail	3	6	9
Rape	1	14	15
Shooting	7	9	16
Thief	3	3	6
War	3	3	6
Weapon (i.e. gun, knife)	29	24	53
Subtotal	74	93	167
Other			
Accidents	2	2	4
Berating or punishment	3	6	9
Cemetery	2	1	3
Cricket ball	0	0	0
Cruel or horror movies	0	0	0
Death or dead people	19	19	36
Departure or divorce of parents	0	1	1

Categories	No. of fears for black children		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Fear of heights	3	3	6
Fighting	0	1	1
Hard work	1	0	1
Immigration or travelling	0	1	1
Loss of family	0	2	2
Mountain or cave	2	2	4
Narcotics	0	0	0
Roller-coaster	0	0	0
Shops	2	0	2
Stress	0	0	0
Small places	0	0	0
Transport	5	9	14
The unexpected	1	5	6
To be lost	2	4	6
Tunnels	0	2	2
Water, to drown	1	3	4
Subtotal	43	61	104
Total	**319**	**465**	**784**

ADDENDUM F

The division of the sample according to SES

Culture	Gender	SES	Number group
Black South African children	boy	low	39
		medium	6
	girl	low	48
		medium	3
	Total	low	87
		medium	9
White South African children	boy	medium	11
		medium to high	53
	girl	medium	9
		medium to high	36
	Total	medium	20
		medium to high	89
Coloured South African children	boy	low to medium	68
		medium	35
		medium to high	1
	girl	low to medium	64
		medium	31
	Total	low to medium	132
		medium	66
		medium to high	1
All South African children	boy	low	39
		low to medium	68
		medium	52
		medium to high	54
	girl	low	48
		low to medium	64
		medium	43
		medium to high	36
	Total	low	87
		low to medium	132
		medium	95
		medium to high	90

The four SES levels are: low, low to medium, medium and medium to high.